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IMPROVING
HUMAN RELATIONS
IN
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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IMPROVING
Human Relations
IN
School Administration

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IMPROVING HUMAN RELATIONS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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PREFACE

This is not a standard text in school administration. The reader who wishes to learn about the complex and manifold responsibilities of the school principal will need to look elsewhere. The present volume is written for those practicing principals, or those who intend to be principals, who desire to improve the quality of their educational leadership in the school.

If American democracy is to work it needs to be implemented. Schools were created to serve the American people. They can serve best by promoting democratic living. But such a distinctive way of living depends primarily upon competent and intelligent direction.

We have habitually looked to the superintendent of schools for this direction, superintendents of large and small city schools, superintendents of county schools, and state superintendents. In nearly all of these systems the superintendent is usually only remotely related to the on-going processes in the classroom. At best his direction of the educational program must be by remote control. Our greater hope for effective leadership must be centered in the administrator who is closely connected with the teaching staff. Thus the principal of the school is the focal point of attention in this volume.

It is difficult to write concretely about any one kind of school organization and still have what is said applicable to every other kind. Schools operate in a variety of organizational contexts. It is almost impossible to find a modal type. They range in size from the one-teacher school to systems employing several thousands of teachers, from schools organized on the straight grade basis to

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highly departmentalized structures. Some individual schools have wide latitude in the selection of subject-matter content for children's experiences, while others operate under rigidly prescribed courses of study. For purposes of this book we have attempted to strike at the middle of this wide range. We have postulated a school of average size, less than five hundred pupils, with several other schools in the same small system. The reader will need to make whatever adaptations necessary to fit his own situation.

This book is written for elementary-school principals, although there is no logical reason why the ideas discussed would not apply equally well to any educational level or in any kind of position of educational leadership. Primarily because the author has had all of his experience in elementary schools the concrete applications are made to problems on this level. But out of these problems and their consideration emerge general principles of school administration which, if valid and pragmatic, will stand the test of practical application in any context. Secondary-school principals and superintendents are urged to study the proposals and test them in their own situations.

A few original cases have been selected carefully for the purpose of bringing out clearly the principle under consideration. To have drawn upon more of the actual experiences a principal encounters during a busy day would have made this book of prodigious size.

Out of eight happy and satisfying years as principal of the Roosevelt Elementary School, Euclid, Ohio, the author has derived the principles of educational leadership here presented. It gives him great pleasure publicly to admit his gratitude to the members of that staff for their loyal and patient support during many trying and difficult times. Their satisfaction must be derived from the knowledge of a job well done, and the fun they had in doing it.

The cases cited in this book are fictitious, with enough elements of reality to make them convincing. Members of the staff of Roosevelt School may see many counterparts in the real experiences they

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had in common with the author, but it is not likely that anyone else will. The elements of many different situations have been combined to make the described case.

No attempt has been made to include elaborate footnotes and quotations from recognized authorities. The temptation to "stack the cards" by the impressive weight of external authority has been consistently and successfully resisted. The principles herein stated must rest their case on their ability to function effectively in practice. Their validity cannot be determined by the amount of consensus of great men. However, the author has consulted and liberally drawn from other sources. Whenever it has been possible to identify the source of the idea, credit has been given by reference to the volume from which it originally came.

In recognizing the source of ideas the list would not be complete without special mention of the debt the author owes to his major professor in graduate school, Dr. J. R. McGaughy, for his inspiring help and encouragement through the years. The many experiences of working with him at Teachers College, Columbia University, both personally and in professional courses, are largely responsible for the present point of view in school administration.

During the writing of earlier versions of this work the author had the privilege of engaging in many spirited discussions with his good friend Dr. John L. Blair, out of which emerged a sharpened appreciation of the ideas, generalizations, and principles herein contained.

W. A. Y.

August 1, 1948.

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I

INTRODUCTION

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CHAPTER I

The Point of View

AN ANALYSIS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

AMERICA today is a confusing complex of democratic values and of practices inconsistent with these values. The things in which we believe are not always present in our practices. If we were to draw our conclusions concerning what we believe from our daily behavior we should have difficulty in determining exactly what our real values are. We have the spectacle of political democracy in which the people elect their representatives to do their bidding, and of economic autocracy in which the owners and managers of business operate their establishments according to their own best thinking. We see a political organization constituted for the purpose of doing the people's business, with a majority of the people having little or no control over the actions of their representatives. Our search for values through contemporary practices would inevitably lead us to bewilderment and frustration.

Any hope for a clear conception of what America stands for must come through an analysis of the *trends* in development. In what *direction* are we headed? Are we in favor of control by the few, or are the evidences of such control an indication of present inability to conduct our affairs otherwise? When a clear choice is given the people between dictation and democracy, which do we choose?

An analysis of the development of control and operation in the United States will reveal that there is a trend in the direction of improving and extending democratic practices. It makes less difference where we are at any given time than to know where we are consciously going. Thus in order to give direction to education so that it

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may provide communities with the services desired it is more important to know what the American people *want* than to know what they have succeeded in getting at any particular time.

The American people want democracy, regardless of how poorly they may consciously understand what that is. It is possible to observe, written between the lines of action, several basic values and principles which guide their destiny. Several excellent analyses of these values and ideals have been made. Elementary-school principals who sincerely desire to be of maximum service to the people could well afford to make a study of the literature in the field (8, 9, 12, 22, 35, 54, 61, 80, 84, 89, 90, 127, 130).*

DEMOCRACY IS A FORM OF GOVERNMENT

From the many analyses of American culture it can be seen that democracy is not one but many things. Historically, it was a revolution and a renunciation of the tyranny of despotism. With the opening of the new world and its consequent expansion of physical horizons and individual freedom, man began to question the divine right of inherited authority. Instead of acceptance of domination of a privileged few over the lives of all other men, the assertion was made that man was born to rule himself. This new concept called for a reconsideration of government and how it should operate. It was natural that our early thinking about democracy should center around the question of government.

DEMOCRACY IS A SOCIAL CONTRACT

Aristocracy—the notion that only the well-born should rule—died a hard death. It is not yet wholly dead, but there is a steady trend away from it. From a governmental point of view the franchise has been steadily widened, the actions of elected representatives have been increasingly brought under the control of the people, the ex-

* Numbers in parentheses are used throughout to refer to references listed in the bibliography.

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tension of government into formerly private affairs has steadily advanced. Regardless of cries of anguish from the seats of special privilege, democracy is on the march and will have its way.

No small share of the credit for this development is due to a broader concept of what constitutes a good society. If the land and all that goes with it belongs to all men, and all men are free to govern as they see fit, the mechanisms of society must serve this purpose. We cannot expect to limit our vision of the good life to the particular governmental machinery we have constructed to serve a fuller purpose. Our hope of success lies in understanding more fully the values and ideals that constitute our concept of society for which government is the tool. The ideals of society should control the machinery rather than the reverse.

Implicit in the way we conduct our governmental business are some social concepts that give direction to our future action. It will be helpful to bring them into bold relief so that we may see exactly what they are.

1. *Every individual is important in his own right.* According to our belief and way of acting the state is a composition of individuals; it has no meaning divorced from its members. The will of the people *is* the state. All that remains is the governmental machinery the people construct to do their business. Unless we are to revert to some form of partial control—where the will of the people is determined by a few of the people—we must adhere to the concept that the will of the people can only be expressed by *all* the people. This makes the opinions and judgments of every person of importance in determining what shall be done.

2. *All points of view should and must be expressed.* It is impossible in a true democracy to know what shall be done unless the elected representatives are informed. If only a few people expressed themselves there is grave danger that they will express a partial point of view. At least, there is no assurance that the opinions of the few are representative of all the people. Until machinery is set up

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through which it is made possible for all people to be heard we have failed to achieve a truly democratic society.

3. *Minorities are respected and cherished.* Usually, some individuals or groups take a stand in opposition to that of the majority of the people. Customarily these minorities must go along with the larger group in a spirit of fair play, regardless of how importantly such action may violate the basic principles by which they may guide their living. Greater wisdom born of more experience now inclines us to the view that this practice is in direct violation of our democratic principles. The extent to which we ignore or control minorities in the direction of majority rule represents the distance we still have to go in improving our democratic action. The richness of social living lies in the consideration for the diversity of opinions; the chances of being right are greatly enhanced by listening respectfully to all points of view. Ideally, we shall achieve a true democracy only as this variety and divergence are integrated into a common point of view to which all can give their allegiance.

4. *The common problems of living together can only be solved by co-operative action.* The alternative to co-operative action is force and domination. If the individual is important in his own right, and his opinions are expressed and respected, the hope of final group action lies in finding some means by which all men may work together for a common cause. Experience has shown that this common cause, and the means for its attainment, must be the product of the thinking of all members of a group or society. When free men sit down together to solve their common problems the ends achieved must be the result of that co-operation, and not the preconceived answers of some of the members. The shift in emphasis is from the *ends* of co-operative action to the *means*. What outcomes accrue from the process are accepted as the best that can be achieved at the time. If true co-operation has been exercised the process itself will provide the means by which the ends may be progressively improved. Too much emphasis cannot be given to the notion that a good democratic

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society is one in which its members concentrate on the *processes* of solving its problems, accepting for the time being whatever outcomes are agreed upon. Testing the outcomes in experience will quickly indicate the extent to which the process has been effectively used.

5. *All men are free to make the choices they prefer.* Basic to all thinking about a good society is the denial of the right of any man to dominate the life of another. Although in practice it is often necessary to violate this principle, it still stands as a foundation stone in our concept of society. Our inability to recognize and practice the principle perfectly is a measure of the distance we still must travel in implementing our best thinking. Many problems remain, but we are determined to work diligently and make all possible progress.

DEMOCRACY IS A FAITH IN MAN

These basic principles of social action represent the foundation blocks in our structure of a good society. Pinnacled by the apex of governmental form they constitute the working arrangements by which people in a democracy live together. Many people stop at this point, on the erroneous assumption that this is all of democratic action. But undergirding these principles lie three basic assumptions that are based partially on faith, partially on observed behavior. To ascribe to these faiths an unfounded basis of wishful thinking or pure fabrication is to ignore the overwhelming evidence which can be deduced from intelligent observation of human behavior. They constitute the central core of belief in the democratic way.

1. *The mind of man can be trusted, if freed.* Surprise has often been expressed that various national polls of popular opinion seem to reflect an ability of the American people cannily to divine what is best for them. Time and again the people have spoken for or against some national issue in a manner that demonstrates a wisdom that is unexplained by usual rational means (45). When given the appropriate information on which to make a decision, people have shown that they will put aside selfish and immediate interests in favor of the

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long view. Given the opportunity, not only will the common man make intelligent decisions, but the decisions will be verified and tested as intelligent in further experience. Obviously, it is mandatory that this unique quality of man be intensively cultivated. Opportunity to see *all* sides of a question, clarification of what consequences will follow, knowledge of the true facts of a case, are all indispensable to the freed mind. Given these conditions we need never worry about the conclusions to which the American people will come.

2. *The good life is one increasingly controlled by reason and rational behavior.* In the past three hundred years man has devoted an increasing share of his time to the perfection and use of the scientific method. Our increasingly expert control of environmental factors, our control of disease and discomfort, our enjoyment of living have all come from the use of tested experience as a basis of knowing what is good. We know that emotions alone are poor guides to intelligent living. We have seen that only as man is capable of delaying judgment and action until he has the facts on which to base his decision will he be able to live a life of increased satisfaction and profit. As man's experience with the use of the scientific method in all phases of his living has demonstrated the wisdom of this course of action, he has shown an increasingly greater disposition to widen the scope of its use. The faith has been justified by the results (38).

3. *The life of man is capable of infinite improvement.* An historical view of man's progress gives ample evidence that his maximum development has hardly begun. While the improvement shown during any given period of time may be small, history shows us that the curve of improvement is upward—not counting, of course, temporary setbacks, such as the recent world wars.

In general, a survey of the principles of democracy as they are revealed in our everyday living will lead us to the conclusion that our faith is first in man as an individual who, in co-operation with others, is capable of developing a type of life which is best for all

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men. Our accent is on the individual because we see that human society is composed only of individuals and their interactions. Each individual is important because the totality of society is only as good as the aggregate worth of all individuals. Improvement in society is possible only to the extent that we improve the individuals who compose it. Our criterion of success, of progress, must be found in what happens to individual men.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

What implication does this have for education? Our concern in educational institutions is in the development of the individual child in the direction of making him more effective in a democracy. Democratic needs have been amply portrayed in much of our recent literature on the subject. Democracy is a word one will find in practically every piece of writing that deals with education and schools in their broader aspects. If we accept the analysis here given—that the schools as social institutions were created for the purpose of helping the immature to achieve the purposes of democratic living—our guide as to what to teach and how to teach may be ascertained and directed by the consideration of what will make the child more democratic. The entire curriculum and all other aspects of the school program will need to be critically examined to discover to what extent they contribute to this end.

There are many facets to this analysis of the contribution of the school to democratic living, but we are here concerned with an important agreement among educational psychologists: the learning of the child is modified and conditioned by his experiences (101). Thus we have the cue we need for the determination of how and what the school must do for democracy. No amount of book learning or of teaching democracy in the abstract will, if taken alone, make any real differences in the lives of boys and girls. It is only as the school is able to furnish children with democratic *experiences* that we may expect to produce individuals capable of functioning effectively in a democ-

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racy. The extent to which the environment for learning is democratic will determine what is learned by children about democracy. It cannot be read out of a book; it cannot be talked about by the teacher; it must be learned in experiential contexts by the child in all his living in school (35). The permeation of democratic principles and relationships throughout the entire school experience of the child is our keynote to democratic teaching.

NEED FOR TEACHER RE-EDUCATION

If children are to be provided experiences that develop democratic qualities, they must be guided by teachers who are themselves sympathetic and skilled in such experiences. At this point we strike our first major obstacle. The typical experiences of teachers in average schools do not give cause for any large amount of optimism. One visit to a neighboring school will reveal that primary value is placed on obedience to command, doing as one is told, following prescriptions laid down by some "higher" authority. Lessons are planned in advance and imposed on children with little deviation from the set plan; emphasis is placed on acquisition of facts with little regard for the child's needs, interests, or capacities. Competition is the keynote to success—get the highest marks, please the teacher most obviously, be able to make the most accurate verbatim report of what the textbook says.

IMPORTANCE OF THE PRINCIPAL

One individual in the educational hierarchy is so situated that he can make immediate and profitable contribution to the improvement of school practices—the school principal. Regardless of the quality and character of the teachers he gets from the teacher education institutions, regardless of the attitudes and predispositions of the community, and even regardless of the status and attitudes of present faculty members, he can begin *at once* to provide teachers with vital experiences that will progressively increase their ability

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to guide the lives of boys and girls toward more effective democratic behavior.

Public-school administrators have proudly copied their activities from what they assume to be the honored practices of business. Typical charts, depicting the relationships desirable in a school system, still reveal them as essentially autocratic—from superintendent through the principal to the teacher and pupil. That this administrative organization is antithetical to our best thinking about democratic structure is easily seen. It will require something of a minor revolution to effect the desirable changes.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS BOOK

The present volume is an attempt to present practical suggestions concerning the ways in which the principal can provide teachers with democratic experiences. No particular philosophic position with regard to educational methodology is prerequisite. The principal may hold that the subject matter children learn should be sternly restricted to the so-called fundamentals. He may just as well believe that all modern activities exemplified by the "progressive" school are the true basis for an adequate education. But regardless of such beliefs, he must possess a firm conviction that the ultimate purpose of the school is to build democratic characters in children, and that the quickest and most effective method is for him to devote his major concern to securing these characteristics in teachers. With this as a fundamental prerequisite, his further convictions must include an abiding faith in the democratic process and a willingness to follow consistently wherever it may lead.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The following general principles of good school administration, geared to the above purpose, will be constantly exemplified:

1. *Democracy is primarily concerned with human relations; therefore a most important consideration is the principal's dealings with*

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teachers individually and collectively. Traditionally, the principal has been largely preoccupied with the mechanics and routine educational duties: assignment of teachers, distribution of textbooks and supplies, determining rules and regulations, supervision of plant and office, schedule making, office routine, attendance reports, handling discipline, organizing drives and collections, keeping financial accounts, etc., etc. These are all important and necessary activities. But they are definitely *secondary* responsibilities, subordinate to the more important jobs of: supervision of the classroom teacher, helping each teacher and the faculty as a whole to construct worthy plans for children's experiences, carrying out a consistent and intelligent plan of public relations, co-ordinating the work of various divisions of the school's responsibilities, etc. In short, the principal who honestly desires to administer a school dedicated to maximum service to its community must recognize his primary job as that of *personal, educational leadership*. When that responsibility has been fully discharged, whatever time and energy remain may be devoted to the more mechanical and routine activities. It cannot be stressed too strongly that acceptance of the relative importance of these two sets of responsibility is a necessity for success in administering a program described in the following pages.

2. *Simple problems of human relations almost always have wider frames of reference.* When people are expected to work together on a common problem it is inevitable that friction and disagreement will result. No group is free from the troubles that beset all of us. Some of the difficulties are due to a lack of recognition that the causes of human conflict are sometimes deep-seated and possess many cross currents. Too often the typical principal attempts to solve a problem in school as though it were isolated from all human affairs. An offending teacher is brought into the office to correct her individual deficiency, with no regard for the effect it may have on her relations with other teachers. But, the real solution to her problem will often be found exactly in the area of human relations which is being

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ignored. Because this is such a critical and important aspect of school administration it will be treated specially in Part Five. If we are consistent with the principles of democracy, greater attention to the importance of the individual in the group must be given.

3. *The single-school faculty is the most natural and efficient unit of democratic action.* With the increase in the size of school systems, particularly city school systems, it has become administratively simpler to manage the program from the top down. This has led to an artificial and mechanistic organization without much real human relationship. Executives become inundated with routine responsibilities which make it difficult if not impossible for them to know intimately the multitude of educational workers under them. The program is legislated by executive fiat and decree, with little regard for the ideas, attitudes, or sentiments of those responsible for carrying their orders into action.

Democracy depends greatly upon face-to-face relationships in which individuals have a chance to express themselves and in which their opinions count. The members must live in an atmosphere of mutual regard and respect, surrounded by a set of common traditions and customs, in an environment where common experiences can be had. The single school, with an organically functioning faculty, provides the best hope for the achievement of these requisites to democratic action. It has its own identifiable community of people, institutions, and organization. It has a unity of membership and common educational responsibility. It has a titular head who can exercise direct leadership and guidance. It has a known clientele of children whose backgrounds can be easily ascertained, whose interests, needs, and desires can be objectively and intimately studied, whose personalities are real and not represented in averages, norms, and medians.

In every respect, the hope of true democratic action lies in dealing with the single school as an organic whole, interacting with other organic wholes, to make up the administrative unit of the school

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system. The focus of attention will here constantly be centered on the single school and its problems. Since the individual is of prime importance in the democratic group, and the good of the group is best served when the individual is so considered, the good of the system will be served when the needs, desires, and capacities of the individual school faculty are met. The larger problem of what is required in reorganization of the entire system to effect this policy will here be only indirectly treated. It is a consideration of such magnitude as to require a book in itself to describe (see 70).

4. *The principal is in the most advantageous position to offer leadership to the faculty in its attempts to provide itself with democratic experiences.* As will be pointed out in Part Two, democratic action depends largely upon the interpersonal relationships that exist among the members of a group. Since the single faculty is already an organized group its most pressing necessity is that of leadership to direct its energies toward more productive ends. The common responsibility of all teachers is the education of children under their care. Both legally and ideally, the principal is the person most capable of offering the needed guidance. Without his positive and vigorous espousal of the principles of democratic action all the values here advanced are lost. Individual teachers, or even the group as a whole, cannot hope to promote co-operative action without the obvious and dynamic approval of the principal. He can make such efforts abortive if he so desires. Thus the principal stands as the key figure in the transition of the school from autocratic domination to democratic freedom. That is why the suggestions in this volume are directed to the principal.

What has been said about the relations between teacher and principal applies with only slightly less importance to the relation between principal and superintendent. The superintendent holds a position above the principal analogous to that between teacher and principal. However, tradition makes the autocratic domination in the former case much less severe. Superintendents are prone to give principals

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considerably more freedom than the principal has been willing to grant teachers. Nearly all the better administered large city schools operate on the policy of allowing the individual school some latitude in the development of its program. It is this small loophole through which the reorganization of public-school administration must slip. If for no other reason, this fact would amply justify the contention that the school principal holds the key to improvement in our schools. With this responsibility discharged in the manner proposed in this book American schools can go far in better serving their true purposes.

5. *The faculty is a complex social group which requires expert handling to achieve its own best desires.* Groups do not usually operate without leadership that is recognizable and titular. Human relations are too complex and unmanageable for the individuals involved to be able to handle them well without considerable guidance. Members of a group are constantly interacting among themselves, creating strains and tensions that call for intelligent guidance to keep them from bursting into raging conflagrations. Individuals perpetually work at cross purposes, one nullifying the good another does. A group's greatest demand is that it have a recognizable unity, a unity of purpose and of program. Only an individual who is primarily concerned with providing the group with this unity for its own good can hope to produce desirable results.

In a faculty situation the group is constantly interacting with four dominant forces: the principal, its fellow members, with outside influences, and with the children. Faculties need help if they are to obtain maximum benefit from these interactions. Much of what follows is directed toward helping to reveal these interactions, how they operate, and what can be done to improve them.

6. *The primary responsibility of the principal is that of facilitation of the interactions of the faculty group so that they may result in maximum benefit to the teachers.* Only as the principal accepts as his major job that of helping each teacher to grow and develop to

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her maximum capacity will he have discharged his full responsibilities. The central thesis of this volume is that maximum growth for all takes place in a social group operating on the principles of democracy. Thus the principal must accept the primary function of guiding individuals in a group, the ultimate purpose of which is to provide teachers with rich experiences which will qualify them as competent democratic leaders in their own classrooms.

7. *All individuals affected by any decision should have a share in determining its character and form.* Central in the concept of democracy is its method. One of the greatest tragedies in the failure of democracy to fulfill its promise is the extent to which this concept has been ignored or slighted. No real good can ever come from a constant and incessant verbalization about the ends of democracy. No matter how sincerely the principal embraces the *philosophy* of democracy, no matter how often he reiterates his acceptance of the basic principles, teachers will be denied their rightful heritage of a free and encouraging environment until this theory is translated realistically into action.

The method of democracy is simple to state. But it requires years of patient and time-consuming experience to develop the skill in practice that will yield the fullest results. The first practical step is acceptance of this generalization—whenever a decision must be made which involves the co-operation of people, all should be invited to share in determining what it shall be. In this small beginning the roots of democratic behavior are planted, to grow into a sturdy tree of many branches, with many leaves of variegated hue, shape, size, and quality. Planting the roots calls for little real effort; nursing the tree to vigorous maturity will challenge the capacities of the most adroit. At all times it is essential that the leader and inspirer of this growth shall have his perspective centered on the process. The perfect and absolute ends of democracy are not yet in sight—if there be any absolute ends—but this should be no concern of the present. Within the principles and practices of democracy lie all the hope and

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reward one needs for encouragement—the ever-increasing competence of individuals to live and work together in pursuance of common ends of supreme worth; maximum benefit to the individual in a social milieu. If this does not eventuate in improved and maximized potentialities for children it is difficult to imagine what would.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL

The responsibilities of the principal are viewed as being conveniently divided into four areas, each of which is given a separate part of this volume:

1. The principal must know the general characteristics of groups and how they function. Chapters Two and Three give an outline of some of the major considerations with regard to groups and their behavior.
2. The principal has a major task as leader of the faculty group as it attempts to arrive at common agreements concerning its work. Chapters Four and Five give some practical suggestions as to how the principal may best govern his actions in these group situations.
3. After the faculty has determined the major outlines of its policy there are a multitude of activities involved in putting it into action. The principal must understand his relation to these plans and what he can do to be of maximum assistance. Chapters Six, Seven, Eight, Nine and Ten offer suggestions of ways in which he can help in the execution of the plans.
4. Finally, the principal must act as mediator and referee for the many human-relation problems that inevitably arise during the course of group action. Chapters Eleven and Twelve analyze some of these typical problems and suggest methods of handling them.

The final section (Part Six) consists of some considerations in making the transition from current practice to that advocated in this volume, together with a concrete method of discovering the extent to which the newer method is succeeding.

Throughout this presentation the accent is on a consistent adherence to democratic processes, not because democracy is some kind of

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ideal we wish to see implemented for its own sake, but precisely because the democratic method contains within it the means for proving its own efficacy. The final test of the effectiveness of an idea or principle is the extent to which it works well in concrete situations. No ideal, no matter how impressive it may sound in words, is worth much unless it can be put to work for the betterment of mankind. Our public schools are much in need of renovation; in what direction remains to be seen. Certainly our schools must reduce the cultural lag that exists between our technological advancement and our social ineptitude in controlling that development. This cannot be done if the schools themselves represent and exemplify that cultural lag.

If democracy is to survive it must have nourishment and cultivation by some institution specifically created for that purpose. The American public schools traditionally stand as the agency for the improvement of its own culture. Children desperately need opportunities to learn how to live more intelligently in the modern world. Teachers desperately need assistance in understanding how to provide these opportunities. The public-school principal is in the most favored position to offer this assistance. It may well be that the future success or failure of democracy in America will depend upon the ability of our principals to measure up to the challenge facing them.

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II

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS OF GROUP METHOD

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CHAPTER II

Groups and Group Action

HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY

MUCH publicity has been given to the results of an experiment conducted by the Western Electric Company some years ago. An attempt was made to discover what factors worked for or against high productivity in workers.* Throughout the experiment the factor of social organization was constantly encountered. Interrelationships among the workers were rarely planned or formally organized. They consisted of basic human relations out of which emerged a loosely knit social structure dominating the behavior of individual workers. External factors, such as physical working conditions, made little change in productive efficiency. But changes in social and psychological organizations played a tremendously important part in deciding how much work a person did and how satisfied he was to do it. Industrial problems consist of human beings working together.

HUMAN RELATIONS IN SCHOOLS

If spontaneous, almost unconscious, social organization arises from the relations of workers in industry, it would seem inevitable that social organization of teachers in a school would develop just as naturally. That such is the case could hardly be denied by any observant principal. The faculty is more than a mere name given to a collection of teachers under a common roof. By virtue of their close proximity, common professional purposes, and allegiance to the same authority, teachers are bound into a closely knit social

* A full account of the Western Electric experiment may be found in Roethlisberger and Dickson's *Management and the Worker* (115).

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organization with form and substance of its own. The conscientious principal needs to know a great deal about the human composition of the staff if he expects to deal expertly with it.

GROUP COMPOSITION AND MEMBERSHIP

When individuals work together in a common environment with common purposes, it is a known fact of social psychology that they will develop a set of relations that distinguish them as a group. Within the group there may be conflicts, irritations, cross purposes, but to the outside world the members will present a united front that magnifies the unity and hides the differences. In general, a group, whether it be in a factory, a school, or wherever else people are present, is characterized by intense loyalty, identification with the group's purposes, and close social cohesiveness (66, 81, 138). Even in the loosely organized group, composed of a few individuals chosen by an outside power, the members develop an informal organization that greatly modifies their individual behavior (115). Membership is gained by the willingness of the individual to further the purposes chosen by the group.

Group organization cannot be forced upon a collection of individuals; it must grow out of the relationships of the people who compose it. A would-be leader may be deeply interested in making a group out of a collection of individuals, but there is little he can do about it from outside. Only time and common experiences will provide the working material for forming the group. No legislative enactment can create a group, although continued attempts to get the members to act in harmony with the leader's desires may produce a true group organized to *resist* his efforts. Too much emphasis cannot be given to the fact that the peculiar intragroup relationships cannot be determined from without. Only as the leader is accepted as an actual working member can he hope to influence the group's direction and purposes.

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"IN-GROUP" ORGANIZATION

Social psychologists have classified groups into two broad categories: the "in-group" and the "out-group" (138). In-groups are characterized by intense loyalties, a sense of belongingness, and mutual identification. They have a rather exclusive attitude toward other forms of social organization. They resent the intrusion of others in what they consider their own private preserves. From the standpoint of the in-group all other forms of association are out-groups. Unless leadership is exerted to direct the energies of the group toward co-operation with other groups it can become highly exclusive and intensely intolerant of everything outside itself.

School principals have probably observed this phenomenon operating in their own in-groups, the faculty. If a high morale has been established within the group of teachers they may show a tendency to think their particular educational program better organized, more efficiently conducted, and achieving superior results to that obtained by any other faculty. When attempts are made to bring two faculty groups together, trouble is likely to ensue. Any comment by the out-group faculty will be taken as a direct insult purposely intended to undermine the prestige of the in-group. Understanding and co-operative endeavor are certain to suffer unless the faculty has been wisely led to accept external criticism in a spirit of helpfulness and fair play.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY GROUPS

The in-group may be further divided into two divisions: primary and secondary (138). The primary group is one which organizes itself around common purposes, with membership made up of those individuals who freely accept and develop the program. Secondary groups are more consciously organized and directed. If successful they tend to become institutionalized and individual action to become crystallized into certain recognizable patterns. Allport has

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referred to this phenomenon as the "J-Curve of Conforming Behavior" (1).

FACULTY "CLIQUES"

Primary groups, on the other hand, are likely to develop within the secondary group itself. These are more commonly known as "cliques." A group of persons will organize around the leadership of one of its members, generally a person of strong character and positive ideas and with considerable social prestige. The satellite members of this primary group attain membership by promoting the policies of the leader. While this form of organization within the secondary group could be beneficial, it inevitably happens that more than one primary group develops. Conflict, aggression, and a campaign of dominance usually result. Each clique is desperately anxious to maintain dominant status in the whole group. Each will often sacrifice the best interests of the whole in order to achieve its more limited purpose. Without intending to be disloyal, one group will work to undermine the other in the eyes of the leader, since all groups depend upon his support and favor for their very existence. If one succeeds in eliminating the threat to its supremacy by any other group, only one obstacle to its complete success remains—elimination of the supremacy of the leader as the main obstacle to its complete freedom.

The parallel in the faculty group is easy to draw. As typically constituted the faculty is a highly organized secondary group, crystallized in its behavior by long tradition. Within this institutionalized group, cliques develop which often threaten the position of the principal by their disunity and cross purposes. He must be concerned with developing the best features of in-groups: loyalty, cohesiveness, common purposes. Success in faculty organization depends upon leading the group into the behavior of primary groups, with their fluidity and dynamic qualities, and avoiding the rigidity of secondary groups. Since the faculty is already strongly biased in the direction

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of the latter, positive leadership will be needed to counteract this tendency.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUP ACTION

If the principal is to make a conscious group out of a collection of teachers, it is important to know what to work for and what to work against. Krout (72) mentions five characteristics of a group that determine its actions.

1. The group desires to maintain its identity exclusively of other groups.

2. And yet, in spite of this desire to be recognized as an independent unit, the group will want to further interdependent action among all groups. When a concern which affects several groups is brought up for consideration, members of one group will evidence considerable consternation when it appears likely that all cannot agree.

3. Groups are identified by the interaction that exists among the members. An audience listening to a platform speaker is not a group in the best sense of the word. There is relatively little interaction among the members. In a true group what one member does should have some effect on what the others do. If one member displays a kind of behavior that is objectionable to another, communication between the two ensues in which both members may be affected. If the interaction is good, each will modify his conduct as a result.

4. However, this tendency to interact is dominated by a desire of all members to control the behavior of individuals in the direction of the group's established opinion.

5. This pressure to maintain unity results in the widening of the areas of common opinion and establishes what we call "esprit de corps," morale, or "collective sanctions and representations." If no force operates to widen further this area of shared agreement it is likely to solidify into symbolism, ritual, and mumbo-jumbo.

Teacher groups are known by outsiders for their many collective representations, most of them not too complimentary. The typical

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movie representation of the schoolmarm, spinsterish, sour-faced, and excessively prissie, is evidence of some common traits seen from the viewpoint of the general public. The true evidences of group morale and collective sanction are not so immediately apparent to the outsider.

Morale is an important ingredient of success. Pigors (111) defines morale as the voluntary acceptance of standards mutually agreed upon. Social psychologists agree that the quality of work done is improved when opportunities are afforded to work in concert (20, 66, 138). Group morale comes in a situation in which the members have been invited to share in making plans, in determining the procedures to be used, and in having some chance to determine the efficacy of the results obtained. This is what Dewey means by "shared interests, consciously held" (37).

AN ANALYSIS OF GROUP ACTION

In examining the literature of social behavior one is impressed by the conclusion that the best group is one in which all members have a share in determining what shall be done and how it shall be done (1, 10, 20, 27, 30, 34, 39, 43, 55, 66, 72, 86, 94, 104, 112, 120, 122, 125, 138).

To help the principal understand the practical problems involved in this kind of group operation, some of the more important aspects will be discussed. The following description of a group in action will unavoidably give the impression that the separate steps in group behavior are discrete and only loosely connected. It will be apparent to anyone who tries the process that the opposite is true. When one actually deals with a number of individuals attempting to co-operate on a common problem the various phases will tend to merge and become indistinguishable. Human beings consistently refuse to behave in the nice, orderly pattern of logical thinking and rational analysis. This is the essence of human behavior.

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GROUP BEHAVIOR CENTERS AROUND COMMON PROBLEMS

Before a group can function it must have a problem to solve. Further, the problem must be one which is recognized as needing solution and whose proper solution will make life more enjoyable for the members. Each member must be able to see that it will be personally profitable to work out a solution. No good can come from forcing on a group a problem it does not accept as such, or one in which it can see no particular merit in solving.

For instance, it makes relatively little difference to teachers what route the school bus takes in its daily rounds of picking up children to be transported to school. Their concern is that children get to school on time. To ask them to determine the exact routing of the bus would be a waste of time and energy. The fault does not lie with the co-operative process but is due to the irrelevancy of the problem to the teachers' interests and purposes.

Problems real to the teachers must be used for co-operative action. An example is the following: A group of teachers had been conducting for a period of years an educational program which deviated from that carried on in typical schools. At first only individual parents expressed criticism of the program. These the teachers accepted as the inevitable reaction to any change in procedure. But as the number of complaints grew, their concern mounted. The teachers were forced to admit that something had to be done; either the program must be changed to conform to parental expectations or some change would have to take place in the public attitudes.

What was the cause of the bad reaction of the parents? The teachers had worked diligently to put on a program that was based on the most valid data available. No change in procedure had been instituted until there was sufficient evidence to support it as desirable and defensible. For instance, after studying carefully the recommendations of the several authorities in the teaching of reading, all of whom reported that the formal phase of book reading

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was being presented too early in the first grade, the teachers had deliberately slowed down their procedures, using the first half year for reading-readiness activities. They were conscious of the fact that this decision would force them out of line with conventional practice, but the evidence seemed to allow for no other course. Did the parents really want their children to be taught to read before the time when they could profit most from instruction? It did not seem possible that parents could be this indifferent to the best welfare of their children. What really was the matter?

INDIVIDUAL ATTEMPTS TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM

Individual teachers had their own answers to the problem. One felt that this was the result of going too fast in making changes. Another suggested that the trouble was with the parents; they were so uneducated they wouldn't know a good idea when they saw one. A third rose in defense of the parents and insisted that the trouble rested with the school. She insisted that the constant tampering with the school program had caused the parents to fear for the education of their children. Another wondered if the trouble might not be in the school's inadequate personal relationship with parents. Too little direct contact between parents and teachers makes for misunderstanding. Yet another teacher wondered if it were possible to provide children with a program that met the needs of community living when the teachers knew so little about what the community desired or needed. A final comment was added to the effect that part of the blame might be attributed to the kind of report card used. It was organized in such a way that the real objectives of the school were hidden rather than revealed.

Each member of the group recognized that the situation was grave. All agreed that some sort of positive action should be taken. Individuals had a variety of analyses of the cause of the problem. Each approached the solution from the point of view and background of her own experiences.

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At this stage in the group process it is not necessary to determine who is right and who is wrong. Each of these individual contributions is important in helping the staff to view the problem from as many angles as possible. The more varied and diverse the analyses, the better the hope for eventual solution. Anyone who has dealt with human problems has discovered that causes for dissatisfaction can rarely be attributed to a single factor. Instead of quarreling over the possible rightness of any one answer the members should encourage wide exploration of all possible causes.

GROUP ATTACK ON THE PROBLEM

All of the foregoing description has centered around an attempt to find a way out of the difficulty. As a result of free discussion it has been brought out that:

1. Parents do not approve of what the school is trying to do.
2. Part of the trouble lies with the parents. They are probably judging the school by standards they developed during their own educational experiences of some years past.
3. Part of the trouble is in the school. Either the changes have been made too rapidly or the school has been inexpert in keeping parents informed of the nature and the reasons for these changes.
4. The school and community have operated as mutually exclusive entities. This factor of physical distance may be part of the cause.

With these tentative analyses before them the group was interested in finding out what should be done. The problem is probably the result of an interplay of all these factors rather than the result of any one. Satisfactory solution will probably come through a united attack on all phases.

Taking the points listed above one by one, the faculty tried to set up a program that would promise some reduction in the problem. Individuals again offered practical suggestions. One wondered if it would not be a good idea to prepare some kind of publicity handbook that would describe rather concretely what the school program really

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was. During a series of meetings a great deal of time was devoted to an extended discussion of this suggestion, and out of it emerged a plan for a document that would present to the parents in picture form an explanation of the school's program.

In more or less orderly fashion each phase of the problem was attacked. The type of report card used was examined closely. Since it was of conventional organization, with space only for recording success in subject-matter areas, the question of its adequacy was raised. Should not a report card report on *all* important phases of the school's program? It was pointed out that the prospective handbook recorded six areas of child development, of which subject-matter achievement was only one.

Parent-teacher relations came in for their share of attention. Should the teachers encourage parents to spend more time in school observing the work of the children? Would this be an invitation to make incompetent judgments of the adequacy of teaching? Exactly what should be the relation between parents and teachers? How about the Parent-Teacher Association; is not that the proper agency for effecting better home and school relations?

Out of these and many other questions the teachers began to find clues for their subsequent behavior. It was clear that they needed to institute some activity leading to more immediate and intimate contacts with the parents. Simple solutions were avoided because it was apparent that this was a complicated problem. Individual teachers made suggestions which led to a summarization, in which these many analyses were compressed into a few generalizations. Each generalization provided suggestions for practical action. Each projected course of action was analyzed, planned by the group, then delegated to a smaller committee for further refinement. Committee suggestions were either approved, amended, or rejected. When finally approved by the entire staff they were put in operation.

During the try-out period the teachers showed considerable interest in the results achieved. The handbook was distributed to the

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community and used as a basis for a series of meetings at which parents were encouraged to question, criticize, and make suggestions for improvement in the book and in the school program. New report cards were issued. Both in the general meetings and in individual conferences with parents the teachers sought criticism of the new card. Teachers visited the parents' homes and invited the parents to visit the school. Every effort was made to place the school in a gold-fish bowl so that parents could obtain a clear picture of what it was trying to do.

The results were not entirely satisfactory. Teachers found that the parents clung tenaciously to their preconceived ideas of what was good, stubbornly refusing to recognize facts that were glaringly apparent to the teachers. Subject-matter acquisition had been the sole purpose of school in by-gone days, and to many parents continued to be its major function. Others did not like the new report cards because they differed from the form to which they were accustomed. Some parents objected to teachers in their homes, and it was next to impossible to get them to come to school. The Parent-Teacher Association mildly objected to the enthusiastic vigor with which teachers took part in meetings.

All these negative reactions represented the extent to which the faculty had failed in making their parent-education program work. Modifications in plan and procedure were indicated if the teachers were to make further progress. All their experiences had to be evaluated in the light of the success achieved in trying them out, with the stubborn determination to try again.

SUMMARY OF GROUP ACTION

There are five distinct phases of group action which can be discerned from the foregoing description:

1. The presentation of a real problem in which the teachers are vitally interested.

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2. An attempt to view the problem from every conceivable angle in order to understand all its ramifications.
3. Tentative offerings of hopeful solutions, each one evaluated to discover its possible chances of success.
4. Selection of the most promising and an experimental trial to see if they will work.
5. Evaluation of the results of experience, and modification in terms of the evidence.

When the group gets to Step 5 it is in reality all ready to start over again, with the important difference that now the members have the advantage of knowing through experience what procedures will work and the extent of their success. Only impractical idealists expect perfection in any human endeavor.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE GROUP

Throughout the preceding description of a group in action we emphasized the operation of the whole group. But we know that groups are made up of individuals. We speak of the group as though it were a unit, operating without differences among its members. Nothing could be further from the truth. Throughout all stages of its development the group will show evidence of lack of unity. This is not only inevitable but probably desirable. Only in a perfectly dominated group situation will all members act as though they were one, and even then this is only in outward aspects. In a group motivated by high morale, common desires, and free interplay of human personalities, there is no means by which we can, or ought to, control the function of individual differences. Success in group endeavor is measured not by the amount of identical action or reaction but by the progressively successful solution of problems that matter to all. As the group process is refined in experience the members will become more skillful in employing individual differences for their enrichment.

With this in mind, then, we may assume that the teachers will have many different impressions both of the success of the parent-

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education program and what ought to be done to improve it. At no time is it likely that all members will unanimously agree on how well the project is going. Evaluation of the first attempt will be another task for group action involving further analyses, suggestions for change, additional experimentation.

Individuals may take different attitudes toward the worthwhileness of the project. Some may consider it a huge success, others be skeptical of its value, while some may even be strongly convinced that it has proved an abortive effort. It would be fatal to force individuals against their wills to participate further in an experiment contrary to their convictions. Those who have the greatest faith and enthusiasm should be given complete freedom to pursue the project as vigorously as they choose. Others should have an equal privilege to reduce their efforts to a point consistent with their convictions.

Parliamentary rules of order prescribe the rule of the majority. But co-operative group action demands more respect for the individual than this. There is little to choose between dictatorship by the individual and dictatorship by the majority. If group morale is to be fostered, it is imperative that individuals be protected from group domination at all times. The teacher, by virtue of her artificial membership in the faculty, does not have the freedom to resign if she does not approve of group decisions. She is fated to continue in service with those with whom she disagrees. Forcing her to go along with the majority may obtain quicker results but it will seriously affect the development of group morale. What happens to one individual becomes a threat to others in different circumstances. Under these conditions it is difficult, if not impossible, to create a spirit of free, honest thinking and action which is the essence of the co-operative group process.

GROUP THINKING IS LIKE INDIVIDUAL THINKING

Analyses of the group process are in striking agreement about the steps involved (17, 41, 65, 118, 119, 132). Perhaps the most striking

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is the similarity of this process to that described by Dewey as representative of reflective thinking (38). In the highest form of intellectualization of which man is capable we find the individual going through a series of phases markedly like that of the group process. This parallel should occasion no surprise since the group is composed of individuals.

Dewey's analysis of the five steps through which an individual goes in solving a problem may be simply stated as follows:

1. An individual is faced with the necessity of acting in a practical situation. But conflicts are usually present which require the individual to stop and figure it out.
2. This stopping to figure out what is the best way to act is called "intellectualization" of the problem. He tries to see what is needed in order to act intelligently.
3. As a result of thinking about his situation he sees a number of possibilities, one of which seems to offer more promise than the rest. He accepts this possibility as a "hypothesis."
4. The hypothesis is then examined to see intellectually what will happen if carried out in action. A "dramatic rehearsal" is held in order to discover what will be the consequences of practical application.
5. The hypothesis is tested in experiences and evaluated.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL THINKING

It must not be supposed, however, that the process of group thinking exactly parallels that of the individual. At all times it is necessary to keep in mind that groups are composed of individuals at different stages in their intellectual development. The "felt difficulty" of an individual may be different from that "felt" by the group. Group feeling is a composite of individual feelings, all of which differ in intensity and meaning.

As the first stages of group thinking are taking place, changes may be expected in the thinking of individuals. Interchange of ideas in the group will broaden the perspective of all. Each individual will have the advantage of the insight and experience of others on which

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to draw for a wider understanding of the problem and its possible solutions. This gives an individual in the group process a distinct advantage over the person doing his thinking in isolation.

At another stage there are likely to be important differences between individual and group thinking. Dewey states that the individual, after he has reviewed all possible alternatives, will select one that has greater promise than the others. In the group process, where many individuals are concerned, one will not find this neat and unequivocal selection. Since it is impossible to act upon all suggested hypotheses, it will be necessary to do one of two things: either continue to explore the variety of suggestions until agreement is reached—an almost hopeless process—or agree to accept a selected variety of hypotheses, all of which will be tested for the purpose of final selection. This introduces an additional step in the process.

Finally, the two processes are not parallel in the final stage of verification or evaluation. Individuals will vary in their conclusions as to what is "successful" and how successful it is. A single individual does not have this confusing welter of conflicting personal opinions.

INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR IN GROUPS

Judson and Judson (65) have made an interesting classification of the variety of types of persons one will find in a group. There is always the individual who considers it his special responsibility to see that all discussions remain on an essentially simple basis. He will insist that there must be some easy solution to a difficult problem. This type of person will insist that the trouble with the school's public relations is solely and exclusively the result of having ignorant parents who refuse to see the sense of the new program, or with equal vigor insist that all the fault is with the school for going ahead too rapidly. This person will find it difficult to understand that most social situations have complex interrelations that do not lend themselves to simple explanations.

At the opposite extreme is the individual who unnecessarily com-

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plicates issues. Not only will this teacher find the causes of poor parental understanding in all those listed by the faculty, but she will want to add further complications: the world is in a period of universal upheaval when all human values are challenged, causing parents to grasp desperately for the security of former days; the parents possess cultural patterns established in native countries that strongly conflict with the values being shaped in America; the educational ideals established by the staff have emerged from a long series of common experiences that have given the teachers abstract values denied to the parents, etc., etc. It is not so much that this person is wrong—the reverse is likely to be true—but that such long-winded explanations have little practical value for the problem at hand; at least the inclusion of these considerations does little to enlighten the group on what should be done. Careful handling of this person is needed in order not to shut off the flow of what might be good contribution to group thinking. To insult her by ignoring her comments is to deny the group the value of some good thinking, if only it can be simplified.

And, of course, one will always find the eternal talker, the individual who takes an interminable amount of time to say something which could easily be compressed into one or two sentences. She will begin by talking about parental misunderstanding, get into a description of what happened on one of her visits to a home, which leads to an extensive discourse on the questionable home life led by the parents, and on into personal matters that have no relation to the subject under discussion.

Occasionally, one will find an individual who has a one-track mind, a mind devoted to a single cause. Every subject under the sun can somehow be construed to lead inexorably to the pet topic. For instance, she will see in every inability of parents to understand the school evidences of a fascist's attempt to capture education. Parents do not wish to understand the modern methods of education, she reasons, because these methods will not guide children into ways of

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complete and implicit obedience to an external authority—or perhaps it is the other way around. At any rate, like the proverbial old maid looking under the bed for possible intruders, she is always trying to interpret every situation in terms of her pet theory about life in general. In addition, all one has to do to arouse her utter horror, or complete satisfaction as the case may be, is to use the word which is a signal for immediate espousal or entire rejection of everything associated with the word. Thus the word "democracy" will do to cover everything she approves, and the word "fascist" stands for everything she detests. Caught in the dilemma of the Aristotelian two-valued orientation, everything is forcibly classified in one category or the other.

Undoubtedly there are many other types of individuals who go to make up the typical group, but the above list will serve to emphasize the point that one cannot ignore the patent fact that groups are made up of an interesting variety of people. One may be bewildered by the puzzling problem of what to do with such a range of personalities, but there never is a dull moment.

SLOW GROWTH IS A CHARACTERISTIC OF GROUP ACTION

Progress in group thinking is slow. Individuals who have had inadequate experience in such social activity will show little skill at the outset. The early stages are likely to be ragged, with too little rather than too much participation. Differences of opinion will be embarrassing to some; unanimity will be an impractical ideal. But through constant practice the process will become easier and more enjoyable. Some will find immediate satisfaction, some will probably never experience the same degree of comfort they once enjoyed in a more controlled situation.

LEADERSHIP IN THE GROUP

Success depends almost entirely upon the quality of leadership. Whenever two or more people come together, for whatever purpose,

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leadership is inevitable. And if no other alternative is offered leadership goes to the individual with the most effectively persuasive personality, and will usually be used to promote his own purposes.

A process as promising as group action deserves better leadership than this. In order for the process to operate at all a high order of leadership is mandatory. But this leadership must be devoted to a single cause—the promotion of the group process. Since the function of this kind of leadership is such an integral part of the whole group process, considerable study and analysis of its components parts are necessary. This will be the purpose of the next chapter.

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CHAPTER III

Group Leadership

WHEREVER there is a group there is leadership. When individuals come together to carry on a common task it is necessary for the members to have some direction, some co-ordination of their individual efforts. All people are not equally capable of determining where and how they may best expend their energies. Group purposes are not likely to emerge from some mystical activity called "group deliberation."

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

From an abstract point of view leadership is a function. Pigors calls it a "process of mutual stimulation" (111, p. 16). Since we are dealing with people, and leadership must be exercised by someone in the group, it is clearer for us to describe the functions as those carried on by people. Thus, leadership is something which someone does in a group situation. Obviously, a leader cannot operate outside the group.

With this leadership goes the responsibility for producing results in the group. What will work best, and how determine what *is* best? Time was when we accepted without question the leader's choice of "best." All he had to do was to search his soul for the answers, after which the conclusions were revealed to the members as guides to their subsequent actions. Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the validity of this assumption, with the overwhelming preponderance of evidence showing that this point of view is open to serious question. The experiment of the Western Electric Com-

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pany cited in the previous chapter reveals that when a group is subjected to dominant control, when it is executing the wishes of others, it will deliberately control its own actions in opposition to authority (115). Lewin, Lippett, and White (79) made an intensive study of the patterns of behavior of boys under three kinds of leadership: democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire. By shifting the leadership types among the groups they were able to study the results in terms of the behavior of individuals. Many of their conclusions are interesting and pertinent, but only those drawn with respect to leadership are relevant to this discussion.

In situations or "social climates" in which autocracy was the form of leadership the boys demonstrated thirty times as much aggression against their fellow members as that shown in either the democratic or laissez-faire groups. It should be noted that the aggression was displayed toward their peers and not toward the leaders. Frustration and blocking of desires forced the boys to create what the psychologists call "scapegoats." Perhaps the most revealing factor in the whole experiment was the discovery that under domination the quality of work deteriorated greatly when the autocratic leader was not present, while the quality of work in democratic climates continued at approximately the same levels. Apparently, in terms of the environment in which individuals work, it is better to let groups make their own choices, whether leadership is present or not, than it is to try to control the lives of others. The reader will be rewarded by a study of the experimental evidence (14, 16, 20, 30, 63, 70, 78, 93, 111, 115, 126, 138).

There is a great deal of evidence that the leader does not have choices in deciding how he is going to operate. His position is clearly defined by the social situation in which he works (111, p. 78). If the purpose of the leader is that of controlling the group in such a way that the members produce the most satisfying results, he is compelled to function in a way that will achieve this purpose. Thus a school principal is responsible for the best educational program

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for children; in turn, he must help teachers to achieve this goal in the most economical way.

LEADERSHIP VS. DOMINATION

What are the differences between domination and democratic leadership? The two best analyses to date are those made by Tead (126) and Pigors (111). Pigors defines domination as the regulation of the actions of others for purposes of the leader's own choosing (p. 74). Under these circumstances the members of a group are little better than slaves, if one accepts Plato's definition of a slave as one who accepts from another the purposes which control his action. However skillfully this form of management is carried out, the net result is the weakening of ability in all but the leader. Tead concludes that leadership is a process of getting members of a group to co-operate on some goal which they find desirable (p. 20). Krout says that leaders are identified by their ability to get group members to solve their problems with him (72, p. 687).

The differences, then, are of two kinds: who determines the goals, and what method is used in selecting them. If the goals are solely those of the leader, and the method is direction of others to achieve these goals, the process is clearly dictatorial. On the other hand if the goals are those which have been co-operatively determined by all, including the leader, and the method is that of group discussion and co-operative planning, the leadership is democratic.

We are not interested in names, except as they tend to define more accurately the way of operating. If domination would produce the desired effect in the behavior of teachers, we should be compelled to accept it as the most worthy procedure. However, there is ample proof that this form of control is not only less effective, but, more importantly, it has been consistently denied as an approved method in our cultural development as a nation. Leaders in industry have long accepted the fact that domination of workers produces poor results, although the behavior of many industrialists would appear

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to disprove the contention. Our whole cultural intention has been *away* from domination as a poorly proved method of control.

THE PRINCIPAL'S CHOICE

At the time of election to the position of principalship the faculty leader has a choice of operating in two or more different ways. He may decide that since he is placed in complete charge it is his clear duty to determine what the group shall do at all points. His purposes will dominate the group under him. He will intelligently decide to use every means at his disposal to get "co-operation," but the final judge of success is to what extent the teachers achieve the goals he has set for them.

Or the principal can elect to act in the opposite capacity. He may reason that his task is that of helping teachers determine more successfully the kinds of things they co-operatively decide to do. Instead of "telling" them, he will make suggestions, offer advice, propose alternatives, and generally be of maximum help to the group as it attempts to come to conclusions. At all times his personal thinking will be incorporated in the group's, and it is entirely likely that at the start the conclusions will largely represent his own. It is not necessary to conclude, however, that since this is so he might better have made the decisions in the first place. The valuable experience the group has gained in thinking together should make it progressively more possible for the teachers to emancipate themselves slowly from extreme reliance on the principal's ideas. Ultimately they may demonstrate a capacity to do their own thinking, without benefit of much help from others. The extent to which the progress of the group goes in this direction is the final determiner of the quality of leadership. Domination is deliberately concerned with creating perpetual dependence on the actions of the leader; democratic leadership is directed toward the progressive freeing of the group from such dependence.

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THE TECHNIQUES OF LEADERSHIP

Tead has suggested several ways by which a leader influences the behavior of a group. Since these techniques may be used to dominate as well as lead, it will be helpful if it is pointed out specifically how the person who desires to be democratic can use these methods (126, Ch. IV).

1. *Suggestion.* Typically, leaders use suggestion as a means of getting their wants known to the group without direct command. The principal, for instance, is interested in having teachers appear at school at eight o'clock in the morning. He reasons that since many of the children appear this early it is important for teachers to be on hand to supervise their conduct. He feels that this expectation is entirely fair; there is no reason why teachers should not accept it as such. However, he does not desire to make it seem that he is being entirely arbitrary, so he couches his desire in the form of a suggestion: "It might be a good idea if teachers planned to arrive at school at an earlier hour, say eight o'clock." This is not a command. Teachers are denied the privilege of feeling insulted by being told what to do. But the suggestion amounts to the same thing. Most teachers will interpret the suggestion as one which can be ignored at the expense of their standing with the principal. Domination of the teachers has been achieved without the outward appearance. The principal can always defend his action on the basis that he has not *intended* to command the teachers, although this is surely a direct evasion of the truth.

What other way may suggestion be used that will correspond more closely with the concept of democratic leadership? Let us suppose that coming early to school truly is a need. The principal recognizes it, and it may be supposed that all teachers not deliberately blind will also agree that something should be done. The principal, not willing to command the teachers to conform to an independent decision of his, will suggest that the facts indicate that some

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action should be taken concerning the care of children who come to school early. He suggests that the group accept direct responsibility for taking some action, the action to be determined by the group co-operatively. Several alternatives may be offered, such as teachers taking turns in coming early; an effort might be made to encourage children to remain home until nearer the time for the opening of school; older children might be placed in a position of supervisory responsibility of the younger. These and many other alternatives could be presented, each being analyzed in terms of the local situation. The principal will again use his function as leader to see that many suggestions are offered. He will not be concerned at this point to see that any one takes precedence over another. Through the process of co-operative group thinking outlined in the preceding chapter, the solution of the problem which appeals most strongly to the teachers will be tried out to ascertain its success. Thus the principal has been able to use the technique of suggestion and yet avoid the temptation to be arbitrary. He has also used a method which will assure him of better and more willing co-operation of teachers in the execution of the decision.

2. *Imitation.* This may be used for the purpose of guiding the group toward goals desired by the leader, or toward goals ultimately acceptable to the group. In the former sense the principal will spend considerable time at his desk after school hours, devoting his energies to doing jobs which he could not get to during the day. For instance, he may use this time to check over orders for educational supplies. Part of this overtime activity is legitimate. The day is rarely long enough to get done all that needs to be done. But there is often the hint that the principal's intention is to create an impression of utter devotion to his responsibilities, in hopes that the example will somehow be catching. If the principal is looked up to as a worthy example to emulate this trick will work fairly well.

Since the principal will have his actions copied by many members of the staff, it is incumbent upon him to be the type of person worth

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imitating. What are the most important attributes of a truly professional person? Is staying late on the job one of them? Serious doubt can be thrown on the assumption that overtime efforts are necessarily an indication of super-patriotism to the job. It can be proved just as easily that this is an indication that one is not particularly efficient, that the common details of running a school are so overwhelming that the principal is completely baffled by them. The point being raised is a practical one. If the principal spends a large amount of time poring over his clerical duties his influence as leader will surely cause teachers to place greater importance on these activities than he would wish.

Perhaps the best principle to follow is to study the opportunities for avoiding many of these unpleasant chores by delegation to others, by deliberate reduction in amount, by presenting the problem to the group for co-operative solution. Whatever the final disposition, the principal must assiduously watch his own conduct so that teachers will have a desirable example to follow. In this way only can the principal hope to avoid influencing his teachers toward acts which may restrict their vision of the broadly educated person.

3. *Exhortation.* The woods are full of principals who spend an unconscionable amount of time preaching to teachers. Teachers' meetings are notoriously a choice opportunity for him to spend hour on endless hour giving teachers a word picture of the educational ideal, or more often merely cautioning them against the utter evils of not having their attendance reports in on time. Perhaps a small amount of good may come from these tremendous expenditures of human energy, but the technique is essentially a "shotgun" one. More ammunition misses the mark than hits it. Undeniably, the principal must use some exhortation under any circumstances, but it makes a vast difference toward what end it is aimed and to what extent it tends to be the sole method relied upon. All groups require that visions of worlds-yet-to-conquer be presented; all teachers need an occasional stimulus to renewed action. Every good leader will

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want to inject some emotional catharsis that will energize the individuals in the group. But, again, it is important to be sure that the members are encouraged to reach for goals that are mutually agreed upon.

The most effective exhortation the educational leader can use is that of admonishing the teachers to do the best kind of empirical thinking of which they are capable. Instead of preconceiving the goals, the leader should use his influence to sharpen teachers' thinking about the methods of group deliberation, the importance of scientific reasoning, the testing of the tentative conclusions in further experience. If exhortation is used in this way the resultant stimulus to action will result in greater profits to the individual teacher and to the faculty as a whole.

4. *Persuasion by argument.* This is an old trick of the trade for many principals. Because of his usually superior knowledge of the field of educational theory it is possible for the principal to "beat down" the teachers in verbal argument, achieving a victory that no one appreciates but himself. If a group of teachers is attempting to determine the broad outlines of a course of study in arithmetic, for instance, the dominant leader will exert a great deal of influence in selling a point of view he has already arrived at in his own thinking. He may inform the group that the latest findings show that we are teaching arithmetic altogether too early, that some experts suggest delaying the formal aspects of arithmetic until the third grade. He may go on to show that studies of children indicate that their neuromuscular development has not sufficiently matured to profit from arithmetic much earlier than this. Besides, he may reason, the results of investigations show that only about 10 percent of the arithmetic learned is practically useful in life situation—therefore, why bother with this troublesome subject until absolutely necessary?

It makes no difference that the above presented facts are verifiable and substantiated by research. Logic will leave the teachers strangely

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unmoved. For untold time they have been presenting tradition-honored arithmetic problems to children in the primary grades and it did not seem to do them any harm. In fact, many children enjoyed them. Asking them to give up an educational practice that has the virtue of familiarity will be demanding more than most are willing to give. The point to be emphasized is that the attempt to defeat teachers in argument may achieve the seemingly desirable effect of modified practice, but it will do little to cement more firmly the cohesiveness of the group, or give the teachers much encouragement in the use of the so-called co-operative method of thinking.

The principal will need to be clear about the differences between domination and democratic leadership. Domination is domination, regardless of the end in view. Teachers who are defeated in verbal argument may publicly admit it, but privately will continue to cherish their former opinions. Outward conformity in thinking and practice is a poor substitute for a real change of mind.

How can the principal handle the matter differently? Again, the emphasis must be placed on helping the group achieve its own best values. Instead of entering into an extended debate on the facts, he may quietly introduce the question of whether or not the group has considered all the relevant data. The findings of authorities could be introduced at this point, not with the idea of proving that the teachers are wrong, but to help them by producing every bit of information that bears on the subject. No intention is held to convince teachers of the greater validity of the newly presented material; it is just so much more grist for the mill. If the evidence thus introduced is not sufficiently impressive to indicate a redirection of thinking, it is entirely possible that the teachers have not yet reached the point in their understanding where these new facts may be recognized as such. Which is the more important, that teachers teach arithmetic according to the facts, and in so doing miss the importance of these facts, or that they continue to ignore them for the

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time being in the interest of strengthening the quality of group action?

If a stage of development has been reached where teachers are capable of accepting some fundamental challenges to their former ways of thinking and can modify their arithmetic curriculum in conformity with the new information, how does this end-result differ from that achieved by the principal winning a battle by force of argument? The difference is apparent. In the first case only a verbal victory has been won; in the second, a true modification in both thinking and action has resulted. The difference appears to be important enough to warrant serious consideration.

5. *Publicity*. It is not unknown for principals to secure a high degree of prestige through the use of public recognition of their services. This recognition might come through a public celebration of the principal's twenty-fifth year of continuous tenure, through election to a state or national office in an educational organization, through publication of articles in professional journals, through the mere accumulation of prestige that comes from running an excellent school with high scholastic standards. In any case, it can be predicted that the principal's influence will be materially increased through public standing.

How this influence is used will make a great deal of difference in the quality of the educational program carried on in the school. Regardless of the method used in achieving this notice by the public, it is much easier for the principal who has good press clippings to use this power in directing the work of the staff. His every word will be listened to with added reverence. It can even happen that this general obeisance will distort his own judgment of the worth of his ideas. Constant dealing with an adoring audience is a poor basis for a balanced perspective. No wonder so many principals feel an importance for their ideas that is often considerably disproportionate to their true worth!

To avoid the nasty pitfalls of this possibility requires careful

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control. The only safeguard known is the consistent development in teachers of the ability to recognize the true worth of ideas, irrespective of their source. Teachers will not obtain this notable ability unaided. Only as the principal personally understands the necessity for having a critical sounding board for his ideas, and vigorously encourages the "Missouri" attitude, can he hope to avoid this danger. Success is determined not by the amount of adoration he engenders but by the increasing ability of staff members to think through their problems without too much benefit of his exalted opinion.

6. *Affectionate devotion.* "Dear old Mr. Smith, he is such a courtly gentleman." What a cloak for real incompetence! Great stress has always been placed on extended periods of loyal devotion to a single job. Teachers will forgive a great deal of do-nothingism on the basis that they would not hurt their dear old principal's feelings for the world. When an administrator has reached this stage in his professional service his ability to influence group behavior through pure veneration is greatly enhanced. On the other hand, a young principal can arrive at this stage at an early age if he so desires. Through a personalized, paternalistic approach he can emphasize the importance of teachers in the educational program to the point that he endears himself to all as their champion and spiritual leader.

Neither of these positions is necessarily bad or undesirable. Much good can come from a proper and intelligent use of personal affection. But if the sole purpose is to gather to oneself further intense loyalties for the enjoyment it brings to an inflated ego, little good can result. Regardless of how beneficent he may be in his relations or how admirable his goals in education, the effectiveness of group action will be poorly implemented.

On the other hand, the influence that comes from devotion can be used to good account by the true leader. He may personally appreciate and enjoy the loyalty of teachers, but the measure of its desirability is in the direction it gives to teachers—to work more ener-

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getically for the best interests of boys and girls. Even though they "do it for him," the actual doing can be educationally emancipating. It makes little difference whether one strives to think independently for the sake of another or because it is personally enjoyable; successful achievement of the end results in independent thinking. The benevolent leader is clearly charged with the responsibility of deliberately sabotaging his personal influence for the sake of a greater loyalty—to that of an educational method and ideal.

7. *Creation of a problem.* While some dominating principals have attempted to use the process of problem solving in an unworthy desire to protect threatened prestige, the number of cases is not great. In such a situation the principal will try to manufacture a difficulty in order to throw the focus of attention away from his own deficiencies. Thus a principal who has conspicuously failed to help a teacher with a discipline problem will suggest that before this practical problem can be settled it will be necessary to consider the whole question of the breakdown of the modern home. The teacher will be asked to investigate the causes and all possible cures for parental indulgence. The hope is that the teacher will become so immersed in these weightier problems that she will fail to concentrate on his own inadequacy in helping her.

That such a technique should be beneath the dignity of any self-respecting principal goes without saying. On the other hand, problem solving can be one of the most efficacious methods known to improve the quality of group thinking. There are relatively few situations in education that lend themselves to a complete and final answer. Anyone dealing with human beings is bound to be eternally challenged by the overwhelming variety of ways by which seemingly simple problems may be attacked. Successful attack and solution are materially improved if many minds work co-operatively together. Thus the chances are too numerous to mention for the principal to confront the staff with problems to be solved.

Dewey (38), Bode (15), and many others have offered fruitful

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suggestions for the solution of problems. Each stresses the importance of facing real problems. Tentative hypotheses, tested out in experimental situations, with a richness of suggested courses of action, are all pertinent. The role of leadership is that of helping the group to reach the most satisfying conclusions. It should be noted that this conclusion must necessarily be one that is agreeable to more than the leader himself.

8. The leader as symbol of a cause. If the leader is truly representative of a cause that is to influence the actions of teachers it will have to be one that is larger than the leader. From the standpoint of real leadership this kind of cause will usually result in good motivation for the members. The principal who stands courageously for the rights of children to a good education, who champions the cause of the underdog, who insists that all children shall have equal rights regardless of race, creed, or color, who steadfastly resists all political pressure to operate the school in the interests of some special group, will represent the kind of person all teachers can profit by emulating.

SUMMARY OF LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES

It may be helpful to summarize now what we have attempted to point out. Leaders have a variety of ways of influencing group behavior. These techniques may be used for two opposing ends: aggrandizement of the leader as an individual, or progressive emancipation of the group from continued dependence upon individual leadership. The test of the adequacy of the leadership is always obtained by determining its long-term effect on group conduct. If the teachers are better able to think through their own problems without too much help from the principal, proper leadership has been exercised. If the teachers not only continue to depend upon him but become incapable of action without his help, the leadership has been poor or undesirable.

Tremendous responsibility is placed on leadership if the group is to achieve its purposes. Not only must the leader employ with

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great care the techniques just enumerated, but he must go further in guiding the developing activities of the members. There is danger in the reader's possible interpretation that leadership is a process of waiting around for a group to act; when it has somehow determined what it shall do, the leader jumps in and helps.

Nothing could be further from the truth. If a principal is to sit in his office waiting for teachers to create problems for him to help solve, if he expects teachers suddenly to find the skill and insight necessary for doing their own thinking, he will be doomed to eternal disappointment. Groups are not likely to act without leadership. If the principal does not exert some kind of pressure to act, someone else will, with the disadvantage that the guidance may be poorer and less legitimate than that offered by him.

THE FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

If teachers need to be led, and need to be led in such a way that they are increasingly freed from the necessity of being led, the principal can offer some valuable guidance. Pigors suggests three functions which the leader must be capable of exercising: initiation, administration, and interpretation (111, p. 198). We shall adapt these to our application to the school situation.

1. *Initiation.* Someone must get a group started or else it will remain in a state of inactivity or mill around with no definite purpose. A principal, newly appointed to his position, noticed that different members of the staff were all teaching with a wide variety of educational points of view. One teacher conceived a good education as consisting of many concrete experiences. She took her children on field trips in the local community, such as the fire station, dairy, bakery, grocery store, etc. Out of these firsthand experiences the reading, arithmetic, social studies, and science programs evolved. The teacher was totally unconcerned with the amount of specific subject matter covered; her sole concern seemed to be that of providing children with a large number of concrete experiences which she

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could use for the more abstract phases of learning. Another teacher insisted that her job was to give children the basic skills in learning. Her program was almost exclusively composed of reading, arithmetic, spelling, and constant drill on these fundamentals. A third teacher, whose personal interest was in the field of science, centered her entire program around this field. Her students devoted most of their energies studying astronomy, radar, magnets, levers, and general mechanical principles of work. All the other learnings were somehow channeled into a science emphasis. Another teacher, whose main interest was art and music, integrated all the children's learnings around these areas. The general pattern of curriculum development was casual and personal; whatever the individual teacher considered important became the central focus for that grade.

The principal justifiably concluded that this situation called for serious consideration. Could the school justify the idea that what children learned should be determined by the individual biases of the teacher? Was it not sensible to suppose that there should be some central fund of agreement about the broad outlines of curriculum offerings? He was not willing to be arbitrary about what these prescriptions should be, but he was convinced that something better than the current practice should be devised.

In view of this reasoning he called a meeting of the teachers and presented them with his observations. The apparent lack of uniformity was analyzed, with doubt thrown on the possibility of justifying its continuance. A heated discussion ensued, in which the champion for each of the several methods of teaching vigorously espoused her cause. It was clear that the divergencies in philosophy were wide and deep. The teachers were sensitive to the implications the principal made. Obviously, he did not approve of the present uncontrolled curriculum plan, but he had made no specific suggestion for changes. Direct challenge had left the teachers uneasy and anxious to do whatever was required to evade the unpleasantness of censure. At this point the principal made the suggestion that

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the group engage in a study of the proposals of curriculum specialists in order to discover whether or not there could be some central ground on which all could stand.

This is a legitimate activity of the leader. He has not determined for the group the direction in which it shall go. He has merely created, deliberately in this instance, a feeling of uncertainty which would cause the teachers to struggle for safe ground again. Although by raising the issue he has implied that he thinks something is wrong, he has not specifically said so. A problem has been initiated, one which the teachers may or may not have seen, but one on which they could take no positive action without initiation by the leader.

2. *Administration.* Merely creating a problem is only the first step in the proper exercise of leadership. Once the group has been disturbed, and has demonstrated a desire to reduce the unpleasant feeling of uncertainty, the principal must help the teachers find adequate and promising methods for resolving the difficulty. In this instance, the principal suggested that the teachers study the proposals of curriculum experts. Establishing the machinery for this study is another aspect of leadership. Who are the authorities, what have they written, where can the group get the material, how shall the teachers go about studying these ideas, are all questions for which the principal must help to find answers. So long as he does not foist on the group his own pet curriculum specialists, he has full authority to recommend ways and means of making the study. He may influence the faculty to split into committees, each taking some phase of the curriculum for special study. He may suggest that various chairmen of groups be appointed. He may work out the schedule of meetings for the several committees. He may personally collect the materials teachers need for their study, and see that all pertinent contributions to their thinking are readily accessible. All of these activities are properly a part of administration—facilitating the machinery for work.

3. *Interpretation.* As the faculty begins to collate the curriculum

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suggestions into a fund of central agreements, the members will need a great deal of help in applying these implications to their classroom teaching. The teacher who has organized her program around firsthand experiences will need help in using some controlled judgment in determining which experiences are appropriate to her grade level, and how her grade must contribute to the total curricular plan for the school. The teacher of straight fundamentals will need to be shown how it will be possible to enrich her program; and similarly for all the other teachers. The principal's task at this stage is that of interpreting central ideas as they apply to specific situations.

This is different from our former notion of supervision. As a real leader the principal has no right to impose his own notions of what is good education. The faculty as a whole has spent a considerable amount of time determining what it collectively considers adequate educational planning. This provides the frame work on which the classroom programs depend. Individual teachers will need a great deal of help in understanding what their specific responsibility to the total program actually is. It is here that the principal can be of great assistance.

QUALIFICATIONS OF LEADERS

If leaders are to function most effectively it is necessary that they possess certain qualifications for the job. A principal may not possess all these attributes at the time he chooses to operate in the manner described in this volume. This fact should not be an insurmountable obstacle. It is the curious outcome of many people's experience that these qualities have the habit of developing in context. As the principal works with groups under the circumstances here described, he automatically takes on the competencies that are required for the job. Leadership is developed by being a leader. Knowledge of what it takes will, however, be of assistance in guiding the aspirant in the direction necessary to obtain these qualities.

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There appears to be no universal agreement as to the exact and exclusive list of qualities necessary for expertly guiding group action. Britt finds that leaders are usually more liberal than other members of the group and are likely to be better informed (20, pp. 286-88). Tead lists, in addition, the following: enthusiasm, friendliness, and personal integrity (126, Ch. VI). It may be helpful if each of these traits is taken in turn to show how they apply to the school situation.

1. Intelligence. We are not speaking here of I.Q. points, which are the measure of one's ability to think abstractly. Although a modicum of competence to think in terms of abstractions is not only desirable but mandatory, it need not be developed to an excessively high degree. Studies of leadership disclose that the most successful leaders are endowed with intelligence only a little above that of a high average person (I.Q. 120). It would be stupid for the principal to rush immediately to the psychological laboratory to ascertain the exact level of his intelligence before embarking on a program of group leadership. Many other factors besides pure abstract verbalism are necessary to success. So long as one's basic mental ability is normal no other check need be made. And since it is unlikely that a principal will have attained his present position with less than normal ability, it may be assumed that he already possesses the requisite brightness.

More important than mere mental ability is the use to which it is put, particularly with reference to speaking and thinking clearly with verbal symbols. Since group discussion deals so predominantly with language, only the would-be leader who is skilled in its usage can hope to attain successful performance.

It is highly important that the principal be able to deal competently with the language and ideas in educational parlance. Not only must he have a consciously held and consistent point of view of his own, but he must have wide understanding and deep appreciation of those that oppose his. Educational literature and conversation are pockmarked with "pedaguese," a form of professional

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double-talk that has meaning only for the elect. Although it is vitally important that the principal rigorously refrain from using it himself, he must have more than a casual acquaintance with its use, so that he may translate it into the English language.

2. *Liberal attitude.* It goes without saying that a liberal point of view is the only one that can offer any hope of effective guidance of group thinking. Any other philosophic position immediately precludes the possibility of the group reaching conclusions of its own choosing. Liberalism implies that other points of view are worthy of intelligent and gentlemanly consideration. Only as the group is led by a liberal can it have the encouragement to examine all sides of every question. It is true that indoctrination of liberalism denies the group the opportunity of becoming antiliberal, but such a choice is contrary to our cultural development. This is a nice question of restriction of the full rights of a group to choose its own ends, and therefore needs to be explored further, but we shall leave that to the philosophers. It seems sufficiently clear that acceptance of the point of view contained in this volume requires an almost mandatory adoption of the liberal point of view.

This amounts to the principal holding an educational position which is extreme in no one direction, unless the extremity be in the direction of more liberalism. Educational circles are riven with internecine warfare between this ideology and that, no one of which has exclusive claim to the truth. The faculty should have an opportunity to explore all points of view, all theories, all principles, all the facts, from which it may abstract those elements which promise most for success. Belonging to a school of thought is good insurance against getting all the relevant material for rational thinking. If this be eclecticism, make the most of it.

3. *Enthusiasm.* Enthusiasm implies more than good endocrine secretion, although this in itself is a valuable thing. The principal with vitality and untapped stores of energy will be able to withstand the many hours of discouragement and despair that inevitably attend

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the efforts to guide group thinking. It has been clearly demonstrated that this type of activity calls for an immense amount of pure animal vitality. The katabolic rate of energy consumption is greatly speeded up when one is working with others. To be able to direct the centripetal activities of a large number of diverse individuals over an extended period of time will drain the resources of the most energetic person.

The leader who is an inspiration to the group will need generous doses of optimism and a strong conviction in the workability and importance of the job he is doing. Faith in the co-operative process, in the infinite possibilities for human growth and development, in his own power and capacity for leadership, are primary ingredients for success. Particularly important is the confidence that if the co-operative process is given a sufficiently long period of time to demonstrate its values it will produce results far more satisfying than any other known method. It is not necessary that this faith be based on pious hope. As the process is used in functional situations its merits must be clearly apparent or the faith is no longer valid. So long as *time* is not raised to a position of prime importance it can be guaranteed that practical proof will be forthcoming.

Applied to the school, all this means that the principal must have an abiding confidence in the ability and willingness of others to work in the group process. Even in moments of extreme discouragement, when all others have shown an eagerness to give up this cumbersome method and a desire to revert to autocratic techniques, the principal must hold steadily to the cause. It can be predicted with certainty that many occasions will arise when individual teachers, and often the whole staff, will seriously question the sense of continuing, and will demand that the principal assume his former position of domination.

4. *Friendliness.* Principals will need to make some radical modifications in their present relations with teachers if they expect to improve the friendliness within the group. Not only must he come

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down from his "high horse," but he will need to overcome an ingrained tendency of teachers to look upon him as different from ordinary people. One practical test may be the willingness of teachers to discuss with him their purely personal affairs, to bring to him their personal trouble, even to go to the unheard-of length of trading stories with him. One might even question the need for the painful amount of stilted formality one finds in regard to titles of respect. It is always, "Miss Smith" and "Mr. Jones," instead of "Helen" and "Jim." While community service clubs may be accused of practicing a mild form of Babbitry in their use of first names, there is no denying that it helps to smooth out human relations. Faculties which have tried this have found that the device tends to unite the members in a more common bond. When the principal is included in this desirable practice the tendency of teachers to treat him with excessive awe is noticeably reduced. Once the formalities have been disposed of the teachers are freer to get down to the business at hand and pay full attention to it.

5. *Personal integrity*. Of all the qualities of leadership this is the most mandatory. Since a leader's example is extremely important in determining the actions of others, and since the conscientious leader is anxious to present an example worthy of emulation, it makes considerable difference whether his actions are uniformly consistent and steadfastly directed toward this goal. The opportunist, the grabber at every chance to "feather his own nest," provides a confusing and discouraging example for others to follow. Just as the members of the group succeed in figuring out where he stands on one issue, they are distressed to discover him on the other side. Only consistent performance in a single direction gives the group the leadership it needs.

Principals can well afford to study their own behavior in regard to integrity of character. Where do they really stand concerning the group process? Is it merely a form of diversion to take the monotony out of administration? Is it likely that they are merely

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riding the current "band wagon"? Or do they constantly demonstrate their sincere belief in the process? Does the principal *really* mean that he wants teachers co-operatively to determine the program, or will he prohibit its use at the first sign of faltering or inefficiency? What actually does he stand for, and can the teachers always depend upon his standing for that? Without this faith in the integrity of the principal the co-operative process is doomed to certain failure, or at best a limping, time-consuming form of group behavior.

SUMMARY OF LEADERSHIP QUALITIES

In general, the most effective leader is one who possesses the above characteristics in balanced degree. No one quality is more important than another. High intelligence without personal integrity produces an individual who is likely to use his ability for unworthy ends. A cold, calculating intelligence devoid of the milk of human kindness is in danger of forgetting that emotion is the fundamental base for most thinking. Friendliness, intelligence, and all the other qualities, without a real faith in the co-operative process will result in disappointment and impatience in the early stages when these are so vital to ultimate success. The most successful leaders are those with a balanced fund of all the virtues, but if there must be an imbalance let it be in the direction of an overdose of faith in the ability of people to solve their collective problems. Of all the characteristics mentioned this is the one to be held in apparent excess. No real harm can come from trusting people's judgment. The rewards of such faith can often be surprisingly rich.

SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP IS INCONSPICUOUS

Observers of group action may often be puzzled by what appears to be a real absence of active leadership. The group chairman does not seem to take the reins of government in his hands and determine the work of the members. No one seems particularly anxious

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to do his bidding; in fact, it may appear that the members are unduly suspicious of his contributions. Whenever he attempts to make a suggestion it is submitted to a scrutiny that borders on hostility. One might conclude that here is a situation to be avoided at all costs.

Such a reaction would indicate a real misunderstanding of the process under observation. From the point of view of successful group behavior it indicates a high degree of success in achieving freedom to do one's own thinking, with leadership functioning in its proper place. Thinking is carried on interactively by all members. They are guarding jealously their privilege of coming to conclusions of their own. Since the discussion chairman can influence thinking to a degree out of proportion to his right, his contributions must of necessity be scrutinized more closely than others, in order to discover whether elements of domination may be present. If the leader has been successful as chairman, real leadership is functioning where it belongs—in the group, in the interactive stimulations among the members.

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III

POLICY MAKING BY THE STAFF

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CHAPTER IV

The Teachers' Meeting

If all teachers are to be considered in the solution of educational problems attention must be paid to the practical ways by which they will make decisions. Opportunities to sit down together to make their common agreements must be provided. Because the typical procedure is called the "teachers' meeting" we shall appropriate the name for our own purposes. However, it is important to call attention to the fact that the following descriptions will not square with the principal's usual conception of the nature of these meetings. In the past, teachers' meetings have been used for the purpose of telling teachers what the principal wants done and how he wants it done. These meetings were characterized by an issuing of orders, interpretation of orders previously given in writing, or a "discussion" of ways teachers can improve the quality of child discipline, handling of savings stamps, preparing assembly programs, operettas, etc., etc. The "discussion" was usually a one-way affair, from principal to teachers, to be recorded in notebooks or scratch pads for future reference. If the teachers participated at all it was for the purpose of raising questions to clarify their interpretation of orders. This is not a pretty picture and is to be deplored, but the facts speak for themselves. Investigations of teachers' meetings, and personal experience in observing them, lead one to the inescapable conclusion that this type of meeting still represents the usual course of events, although by no means the only kind extant.

Our concern is with a different kind of meeting. In Part Two we pointed out that group action calls for a distinctive type of behavior,

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and that leadership demands an art and skill which function in a vastly different way from that just described. Teachers' meetings should be situations in which the staff members determine the policy and program of the school, with the principal acting as discussion leader.

During this and subsequent chapters we shall be using the term "teachers' meeting" in this special sense. It becomes the *only* sense in which the words are used. It is our contention that there is no place in the modern school for the former conception. Nearly all of the material and content for such meetings can easily be disposed of in an executive bulletin, granting to teachers the simple credit of being able to read and understand these bulletins. It is not necessary to insult their intelligence by insisting on verbal elaboration in a time-consuming and unnecessary meeting.

If democratic administration of the school is to prove effective the teachers' meeting must become a functional activity of prime importance. Until the teachers have opportunities to arrive at common agreements there is not likely to be much progress. But it cannot be supposed that once the staff has determined its policy the need for frequent and continuous meetings has been eliminated. All policies are eternally subject to review and revision. Experience shows that policies developed at one time will need revision in the light of subsequent events. Experience also shows that these recurring needs for revision require considerable time and attention, and call for many additional teachers' meetings.

Teachers in general will not welcome this addition to their already overburdened time schedule. Their past experience will lead them to resist any effort to increase the need for attendance. It is entirely within the power of the principal to determine whether this antagonism continues to exist. Psychologically, we know that the human organism tends to favor those experiences to which pleasure is attached, and avoid those which have been unpleasant.

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If the teachers' meetings continue to be a dreary, boring affair, the principal cannot blame the teachers for disliking them.

The alternative to continued and increased time spent in meetings is the full assumption of authority for the program by the principal. Teachers who have once tasted the pleasures of determining their own program will hesitate to relinquish this opportunity. Thus it becomes a choice either of having freedom and paying the price of additional time and energy or accepting the inevitable alternative of being told what to do. There is no middle ground of compromise. When put in this simple fashion teachers will decide to spend the extra time as the lesser of two evils.

THE TIME FOR TEACHERS' MEETINGS

Because teachers are human it is important to give due consideration to the time factor. Usually meetings are held after a long and wearying day at school, when the teachers' minds are at low ebb, and their greatest desire is to get as far away from children and their problems as possible. There are other times that can be used. The following suggestions are offered for experimental purposes only. Each staff should be encouraged to discover the time most agreeable after an intelligent survey of all possibilities has been made. School groups have found varying advantages to the following:

1. *The meeting may be held before school in the morning.* This time is desirable because of the freshness of mind with which the teachers attend. But it will require them to make a special effort to get to the meeting place earlier than is their habit. Teachers will, in all likelihood, report to the meeting with varying degrees of promptness and enthusiasm. This will present a problem of getting the meeting started on time, eating into the precious few minutes to be devoted to the subject under consideration.

The early-morning meeting has another serious drawback. Children often come to school considerably before the formal opening

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time. If left to their own devices they may present a serious problem of control. The last half-hour of such meetings is quite likely to be an often interrupted and uneasy time.

2. *The meeting may be held during the noon-hour recess.* This time will have the advantage of providing an opportunity for the teachers to sit around the lunch table in an informal atmosphere. The simple ceremony of eating together, with its collective feet under a common table, will add materially to the morale of the group. But the time also presents serious difficulties. It is exactly limited by the length of the noon-hour period. The staff may be in the midst of a very important discussion, only to have it shortly cut off by the warning bell. In addition, the children left to their own resources on the playground will surely get into difficulties, calling for ministrations of first aid, refereeing of physical disputes, etc. These constant interruptions will not aid the smooth development of faculty discussions.

Meetings held at any time when children are present in the building and requiring supervision will prove to be less effective than those held at a time when the teachers can have their minds free. The difficulties of meeting during school time usually outweigh the advantages.

3. *The meeting may be held at dinnertime in the evening.* This is likely to prove agreeable to a large number of teachers. A sufficient length of time has elapsed since the close of school so that they have been able to recoup their physical and mental resources. The atmosphere of informality encourages a greater degree of participation under circumstances that are more pleasant. There are no restrictions on the time and attention of the members. They do not have to worry about what their pupils are doing, nor do they need to be concerned about the passage of time, provided the members have cleared the evening of other appointments.

However, this arrangement has its drawbacks. If the dinner meeting is held at a local restaurant, there is always the difficulty

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of securing appropriate privacy. If it is held in a private home, someone must prepare the meal—an arduous task. On most faculties these days are married teachers with families of their own to take care of. It is not always convenient for these members to make the necessary arrangements for leaving their families at the dinner hour. Others will have evening obligations that they will consider equally important. Young ladies, with hopeful prospects for future marital entanglements, will not be pleasantly disposed to the idea of missing the opportunity for making progress. A final difficulty will be met in situations where all teachers do not live in the immediate community in which they teach. Returning to the scene of their daily labors will be lacking in attractiveness.

4. *The meeting may be held in the evening after dinner.* This time has only the added advantage of eliminating the need for preparing the meal. All other advantages and disadvantages of the dinner meeting apply.

5. *The meeting may be held on Saturday or Sunday.* The Saturday meetings will be a disagreeable chore for those who reserve this time for weekly shopping or catching up on needed rest and relaxation. It will be objected to by those who dislike to extend the school week to any greater length. It will call for a readjustment in thinking about how much time the school can legitimately claim. Violent disapproval may outweigh any advantage the time might otherwise possess.

Sunday meetings may run into religious objections or the numerous recreational and cultural activities of teachers. They may rightly claim that some part of the week should be reserved for their own private lives.

Where meetings have been held on such odd times as Saturday and Sunday, the results have not been markedly good. The procedure runs counter to all ingrained prejudices, in addition to encroaching rather seriously on the right of teachers to have some time when they can make a valiant effort to maintain a sense of balance

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between the exacting requirements of being a schoolteacher and the necessity of being a normal adult.

The purpose of this analysis is merely to point out that there are many different times when teachers may get together. All faculty groups should be urged to experiment objectively and open-mindedly with the various times suggested and weigh the benefits and detriments of each. Only after such experimentation can the staff be certain that it has chosen the most desirable time.

Some groups have found it advantageous to use a variety of times to suit the particular occasion. For instance, a noted educator makes a visit to the school and the staff wishes to discuss with him his reactions to the program. After a full day of visiting in school the teachers might conceivably consider it more appropriate to plan a rather elaborate dinner meeting with all the trimmings. At another time the group may decide that an issue before them is of such importance that a considerably extended period of time should be devoted to it. This might call for an evening meeting, or one held over the weekend. Other matters may be of little moment, requiring only a short time for their disposal. These meetings could be held in the morning, or during the noon hour. Faculties will discover that it is best to suit the time of meeting to the occasion, reserving judgment of what is "best" until the purposes of the meetings are determined.

THE ENVIRONMENT OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS

Naturally, the place at which the meeting is held will be determined somewhat by the time and the occasion. Since the places in which meetings can be held vary widely, we can only discuss the conditions under which they are held in the school building. The reader will need to make practical application to the specific environment in which he works.

1. *The faculty should be seated so that all members are capable of seeing one another when they speak.* There is a distinct advantage

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in being able to see the person who is talking. Facial expression and gestures are an important part of meaning. It is also more pleasant than having to look at the backs of other people's heads during an extended meeting.

The best arrangement is a series of tables formed in the shape of a squared circle, with all members sitting on the outside. This places the leader in a position of physical equality with other members, and it also makes visibility of each member possible. Tables and chairs are preferable to chairs alone because they provide a place on which papers can be placed and writing of notes can be done. Tables also provide a psychological effect. While making a contribution to group discussion one is likely to feel more comfortable if able to lean on a solid piece of furniture for moral support. Good, substantial tables are particularly necessary if one wishes to emphasize a point by "desk pounding."

2. *The room in which the meeting is held should be restful in appearance and conducive to good thinking.* It seems almost unnecessary to point out that if the place is subject to noisy interruption the quality of thinking will be impaired. If the walls are unlovely, drab, or dirty, thinking will be unconsciously disturbed. All considerations of the physical comfort of the members must be met if the principal wishes to eliminate the external deterrents to good discussion. Comfortable chairs are of prime importance.

3. *Under no circumstances should the meeting be held in a classroom provided only with screwed-down seats.* This will inevitably force a teacher-pupil reaction that will materially interfere with free discussion. The principal will have to stand in front of the group, and the teachers will expect him to provide them with a lecture. Pupil seats are usually too small for teachers and uncomfortable. About a half-hour of this sort of torture will be all that the adult human structure can be expected to stand. An experience of this kind might give both principal and teachers a sympathetic understanding of the uncomfortable circumstances under which their

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pupils labor during the day, but it will not contribute to good discussion.

THE LENGTH OF FACULTY MEETINGS

The length of a meeting will naturally vary with its purpose. If the purpose is to decide whether or not children should enter the building before the warning bell on days when the weather is inclement, conclusions should be reached in a very few minutes. The physical features of the place of meeting need not be taken into account. But if the staff is interested in setting up the basic criteria for pupil promotion, the affair will be lengthy, probably requiring a series of meetings.

The time at which a meeting is held will determine its length to a certain extent. A before-school meeting must be terminated at the opening hour of school. A noon-hour meeting must end when the lunch period is over. Other times afford more freedom and will call for a careful determination of what constitutes a sensible length of time. In general, it might be said that the length should correspond to that of Lincoln's legs—long enough to reach to the ground.

Since many educational questions are interminable ones, calling for continued attack and analysis, it is reasonable to suggest that a definite limit be placed on the duration. If the meeting is held after school, experience shows that a limit of an hour and a half represents about all that teachers can take with profit. An evening meeting might last a great deal longer, its length being governed somewhat by the recognizable signs of fatigue.

THE FREQUENCY OF MEETINGS

How often should meetings be held? The question has been asked by many principals, but no specific answer has ever been found. It can certainly be said that we could usually afford to hold them more often than we do. If teachers are to participate in determining policy, there will be innumerable occasions when their decisions will be

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needed. Continued revision of educational policy and program requires the establishment of regularly scheduled meetings. Other types of meetings, concerned with the more practical and immediate affairs, can be held whenever the need arises.

Too infrequent meetings are more detrimental than those held too often. There will be no dearth of material for regular weekly meeting. Held less often than this the accumulation of matters to be determined will become overburdening. This is likely to result in the teachers feeling frustrated, or developing indifferent attitudes almost entirely because of the magnitude of the job. The regular weekly meeting does not meet the requirement of providing ample time for due consideration of all important problems, but it represents the best compromise between the amount of time necessary and the time teachers will willingly devote. Again, each faculty will need to study its own requirements and come to whatever conclusions seems best to it. It may even be that the staff will find it wise to approach the decision slowly and experimentally. Acceptance of an arbitrary standard at the outset might prove unfortunate in the long run.

PROVIDING FOR SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

In cases where the meeting is held in the afternoon after school, it would be well to consider some intermediate activity that will help bridge the gap between regular classroom activities and participation in the teachers' meeting. After five or more hours of exhausting attention to a squirming mass of immature humanity, teachers are in no fit condition to begin immediately to concentrate further on these problems. They are tired, irritable, and nervously exhausted as a general rule. A sympathetic understanding of this fact will go a long way in preparing for effective group discussion.

One method found helpful is that of providing teachers with a "social hour" preceding the meeting, at which light refreshments are served. During this period, which may last as long as a half-hour,

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the teachers can sit around the room informally discussing whatever appeals to them, so long as it is *not* educational.

Another purpose of this informal period is to provide the teachers an opportunity to vary the time of their appearance at the meeting. It is never possible for all teachers to conclude their classroom duties in strict adherence to a time schedule. Children will linger after hours to complete special tasks, parents may drop in for a conference, the teacher herself may have some important last-minute responsibilities to discharge. And all teachers with feminine self-respect must have an opportunity to "powder their noses." If an informal period precedes the meeting, to which the teachers may come at their own good time and not feel the necessity for rushing, all will be much more ready to settle down to business in a receptive frame of mind.

THE PURPOSES OF MEETINGS

Meetings are called for a variety of purposes, but they may be divided generally into two types: the "business" meeting and the "policy" meeting. Or: "administrative" and "educational." There is no clear line of demarcation between these two types, nor is there any real need for their being kept separate and distinct. The business of running the school will depend largely on the policy. On the other hand, policy must be determined somewhat on the practical conditions under which the teachers work. Thus these two phases are interrelating and interacting. Many meetings will be a complex of both kinds of purposes. In the following discussion the two types are handled separately for convenience only. The reader is cautioned to remember that this is not an accurate description of real situations.

The business of the school is manifold. In the traditionally operated school this is administered by the principal. In the democratically run school teachers may be expected to participate in major decisions that affect the school's administrative practices. If teachers

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are to act intelligently on matters of administrative procedure they should also have the authority of determining the specific procedures by which these functions are discharged. The policy is one that affects all members, and therefore should be determined by all.

Examples of specific administrative responsibilities which teachers may determine are such matters as the behavior of children at times when they are not directly under the supervision of a single teacher. What shall the teachers do with children on rainy days; what shall be their method of controlling conduct on the playground at noontime; what doors shall they use in entering and leaving the building? These are questions that can best be answered by the staff in conference. Then, too, there is the matter of class schedules for the use of special rooms and equipment. During the winter months the gymnasium must be scheduled in such a way that all teachers have an equitable amount of time for its use; the motion-picture projector must be scheduled so that all teachers may have a maximum amount of time for it. Textbooks need to be distributed so that teachers will have the books when they need them. All these practical matters are ones on which it has been found profitable to invite teacher planning and participation.

Because these considerations are extremely urgent ones, and because there are so many of them, the principal may discover that a disproportionate amount of time is spent in settling them. The teachers will have a great number of things to say. There is the ever-present danger that the meeting will degenerate into a debating society with no concrete conclusions reached. For this reason it is advocated that the principal act, in meetings devoted to these practical questions, as chairman in the sense used in a typical business meeting. His purpose is to get action with as much agreement as possible. But the practical necessity of running a school will not permit extended discussion and delay because teachers cannot agree on the arrangements. Agreement at the outset should be secured that these meetings will be guided by a standard "Rules of Order"

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parliamentary procedure. Motions are made, seconded, with ample time for discussion before a vote is taken. This method provides all members with an opportunity to express their opinions and to attempt to influence decisions before they are finally reached. It also promises that action will be forthcoming without ignoring the will of the members (79).

In the meetings devoted to the formation of policy, however, there seems to be little excuse for the more formal procedure of the business meeting. The purpose here is not so much to get concrete conclusions as to provide teachers with an opportunity to integrate their thinking on common educational problems. This is a slow process of growth and requires a considerable length of time. To force individuals to decisions that are unacceptable to them would defeat the purpose of the meeting. It is in these meetings that the important business of the school is handled—planning for the educational experiences of children.

This type of meeting calls for the informal "round-table" discussion procedure. All the points listed in Chapters Two and Three are pertinent. In the next chapter we shall take up specifically the contents of these meetings. At this point we are concerned mainly with the method.

FULL PARTICIPATION IS IMPORTANT

It is fundamentally important that ample provision be made for the full participation of all teachers. This is not an easy accomplishment. There will always be a small number of talkers and a large majority of "sitters." It will challenge all the principal's leadership qualities to bring out the ideas of the more timid and diplomatically control the tendency of the few to monoplize the conversation.

Teachers will often comment, "Why should I say anything? You know that I will agree with what the group wants." It is sometimes difficult to get these teachers to realize that there is a good psychological reason for wanting their points of view made orally.

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Only as all are expressed is it possible for the group to assess the group position which is emerging from the contributions of individuals. Full participation is necessary if the principal is to know to what extent the conclusions are the result of general agreement. Too many teachers sit back in meeting, mentally disapproving the trend of thinking but feeling that it would not be good sportsmanship to throw obstacles in the path of faculty agreement. Others will feel that it is too much trouble to disagree, preferring to go along with the group and do their objecting in private. Neither of these types does the cause of co-operative thinking any good. They only create the problem of discovering their disagreements at a later date, and then having to go back over the same ground in order to get some adjustments made. It is much more practical and profitable if all teachers can be persuaded to make their positions clear at the very beginning.

The manner in which the principal conducts himself at these meetings will have a profound influence on success. If he stiffly insists upon recognition of his superior position as administrator, he can be sure that the teachers will be disinclined to offer any comments they know beforehand will be objectionable to him. He must be able to prove by his actions that he sincerely desires expression of all honest opinions, regardless of whether he agrees with them. He must treat each statement courteously, even in the beginning bending over backward to encourage differences of opinion.

Getting teachers to present statements of disagreement will not be any more difficult than getting them to make any statements at all. Teachers have been so accustomed to attending meetings for the sole purpose of being talked to by the principal that it is extremely difficult for many to change their pattern of behavior. In one actual situation the first meeting called by a new principal the teachers appeared with notebook and pencils, ready to record all the pearls of wisdom that might fall from the lips of their new master. The principal seized the occasion to give a preliminary lecture on the

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evils of notetaking. He commented on the fact that the only worthwhile outcomes of the meeting would be recorded in the memories of the teachers. If ideas needed to be written down in order to be remembered they were probably not worth remembering in the first place. If teachers are denied the privilege of "doodling" during the course of the meeting, and the principal consistently refuses to make a speech, they are forced to fill the vacuum with some honest-to-goodness thinking and talking.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE DISCUSSION LEADER

An enumeration of certain functions of the principal as discussion leader will bear repetition. His skill in this capacity will determine to an important extent the success of group thinking (17, 41, 78, 93, 119, 126, 132).

1. The discussion leader should clearly state at the beginning the purpose of the meeting. If the subject to be considered is one of great importance to the teachers, and the principal has made a preliminary study of the matter, it would be helpful to outline some of the major areas to be explored, the arguments pro and con with reference to ways of looking at the problem, and the different approaches which might be used in seeking a solution or conclusion. The discussion leader should be careful, *at this point*, to exclude from this presentation any indication of his own preferences. Any hint of bias will positively influence thinking away from opinions that might otherwise be held.

2. The leader is responsible for securing from all members a statement of their position with regard to the matter under discussion. The more verbal members will undoubtedly make their statements first, and tend to express them rather vigorously. This will frighten the more timid into speechlessness, so that if the leader is not careful, the opinions of the dominant minority will rule the group. Since these more forward persons are not necessarily representative of the general opinion, it might be fatal to the success of

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co-operative thinking to let these statements stand as faculty judgment. The principal will be compelled to evoke by persuasion and cajoling statements of other members, insisting that a decision cannot be reached until all have had an opportunity to contribute.

3. As the different contributions are brought out, conflicts among them are almost always inevitable. These differences must be presented by the leader so that the teachers may see the alternative courses for action. When the opposing points of view are once recognized, the members can then begin to talk more objectively about the merits and demerits of each position.

4. At various stages in the discussion it will be necessary to interrupt in order to make a statement of progress. If many points have been expressed, and the teachers have explored each rather fully, it is likely that they may lose the thread of discussion development and get off on interesting side issues that have little to do with the main theme. The discussion leader has the responsibility for holding the group to the issues originally agreed upon.

5. Just because the principal is dicussion leader it does not follow that he has no right to opinions of his own. Although he will have to be careful not to present them in such a way as to obstruct thinking, it would be foolish to suggest that he keep entirely out of the matter. He is as much concerned with the decisions reached as any other member of the group. He will have as much responsibility for their execution as they, if not more. He should be considered an integral part of the group at all stages of the proceedings. His special position as discussion leader should not seriously interfere with his membership in the group.

This point is a difficult one to clarify, and even more difficult to execute. The principal should be at all times conscious of his influential position as principal. His chairmanship of the meeting will tend to increase his authority rather than diminish it. Therefore, the statements he makes will carry weight out of all proportion to their importance educationally. It may be that he is the most competent

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to understand the problem under consideration. It would be a shame to deny the group the benefits of his thinking merely because he was concerned with too uncritical acceptance. He cannot expect perfection at once, so it is proposed that he make his contribution with the full knowledge that teachers will be unduly influenced by it. His future conduct will provide the hope that ultimately they will achieve a degree of independence that will avoid this possibility. To stand on the side line and not try to aid the teachers in their thinking would probably prove fatal in the long run.

6. When the period assigned to discussion is drawing to a close the leader should strive for a statement of agreement. He will probably need to make this statement himself, testing its adequacy in the reactions of the others. He may even need to make several statements, each incorporating some idea ignored in a former statement, until he is able to make one that will evoke the fewest number of objections. Perfection and complete satisfaction of all members are an unattainable ideal, but the efforts of the principal should be directed toward this end. Regardless of the degree of success, it is important that the meeting end on a positive note of general agreement, with an understanding of what has been finally decided. This will be true only of those meetings in which the faculty expects to dispose of the problem for the time being. If the meeting is one of a series devoted to progressive consideration of a larger issue, it is only important that a final summary be made that will inform the members concerning how far they were able to get in that session.

One last point needs to be made concerning the matter of reaching agreements. The point was made earlier that any general group agreement is bound to be acceptable in varying degrees. Too many tend to discredit the technique because this is so. There is no need for discouragement if the general agreement includes explicitly the understanding that wide latitude will be permitted in its execution. Too often group agreements are unnecessarily restrictive for

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the individual in his execution of them. If the teachers realistically recognize that the faculty is made up of individuals who are essentially different, they will admit that unvarying execution of policy will result in inefficient application. All members should have the privilege of individual application in terms of their own capacities. Group agreements should be *general,* with details left to individual teachers. This point will be amplified in Chapter Six.

ADMINISTRATION OF TEACHERS' MEETINGS

So far we have been concerned with the structure and method of teachers' meetings, but a word must be said about the process by which the content is determined. Ideally, the content should emerge from the necessities of operating the school as the teachers recognize them. But teachers new to the technique of co-operating in determining policy and program can be expected to be confused and uncertain of just what is needed. Many years of not bothering to find out is poor training for this responsibility.

Then, too, there is the danger that the principal will misconceive his place and feel compelled to determine rather arbitrarily in what areas the teachers will do their thinking with him. It is necessary to establish some method for determining the content of meetings that avoids the extremes of waiting until teachers bring up problems and the autocratic selection of them by the principal. There are several ways that may be used to avoid this contingency:

1. A meeting might be called by the principal for the purpose of determining the subject matter for a series of subsequent meetings. Using the discussion procedure mentioned above, the conclusions would provide the material for future meetings.

2. Teachers could be invited to submit their individual suggestions in writing. These could then be compiled in order to see what common elements exist. If the principal had previously encouraged the teachers to talk with one another before making their choice, the amount of common agreement would be materially increased. This

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suggestion will not be as profitable as the first because it denies the teachers the privilege of doing their thinking together. But if this is the first time the practice is used it might work better because the teachers would feel freer to make suggestions on paper than they would orally in a general meeting. It goes without saying that *unsigned* written statements are recommended. Until teachers have been given some concrete evidence of the desire for honest suggestions they should be given every opportunity to "play safe."

3. If there are more than ten teachers on the staff the principal might use the "teachers' committee" idea. A set number of teachers are elected by the staff to serve as an executive committee. If there are twelve teachers on the staff there might be three on the teachers' committee. Each member would be directly responsible for reprerenting the ideas of three other members. This would provide three "blocks" of teachers of four members each. Each member of the teachers' committee would be expected to meet with her "block" to get their suggestions for the content of general faculty meetings. She must represent this smaller group in meeting with the principal on an impersonal basis. Teacher A, who represents herself and three others teachers, can report her "group" desires such-and-so, without fear that the principal will be able to identify the individual source of any comment. Through agreement of the executive committee a plan for teachers' meetings could be made.

It may appear that we are being unnecessarily negative and pessimistic about the willingness of teachers to trust the principal's word that he desires to administer the school co-operatively. We are merely being realistic in terms of the evidence of the tremendous influence of traditional habit on the behavior of human beings. After many years of autocratic domination it would be excessively optimistic to presume that teachers will turn completely about and act in a manner opposite to custom merely on the word of the principal. It seems only sporting to grant them the right to play safe until there has been a respectable amount of evidence that the prin-

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cipal can be trusted. Success in the venture will be determined largely by our willingness to recognize all factors of difficulty. The ingrained antagonism of many teachers to the principal's authority is a matter that can be disregarded only with future regret.

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CHAPTER V

Curriculum Planning by the Faculty

WHEN the teacher group comes together to solve its educational problems co-operatively, the number and variety of these problems seem endless and insoluble. In most cases, the problems will be immediate and practical. Miss Jones will want to know what she can do about Johnny who seems completely uninterested in school; Miss Smith will be concerned about the reading achievement of her class; Miss Anderson will complain about the type of report card and suggest that something be done about it; the teacher in charge of the school paper will be anxious to have some time to discuss ways of improving the quality of the next issue.

Miss Ford is disturbed about the loss of control of discipline whenever she has an activity period. Do other teachers have the same trouble, and if so, what should be done about it? Miss Everett has three boys in her third-grade class who are seriously behind in their reading development. Should she retain them for another year, or would it be better to promote them anyway? What shall be done about the increasing criticism from the high-school faculty? What *is* the responsibility of the elementary school, anyway?

These are only a few examples of the kinds of questions which perpetually arise in any general discussion of teachers, whenever they get together. These are real problems that call for practical answers. In the conventional school the answers are usually given by the principal or supervisor, the point of view of that person determining how the problems shall be met. But when the responsibility for determining policy and program is shared by all members of the staff, this former easy way out is denied. Now the *group* must

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find the answers, ones which will be acceptable to all participating members.

THE NEED FOR OVER-ALL PLANNING

Unless the group is to attempt to solve each individual problem as it arises it must have some over-all plan, one to which the members may refer for guidance. This plan, when consciously and intelligently formulated, may be called the curriculum for the school. In the discussion which follows, we shall refer to it as such.

There is no easy substitute for the hours of hard mental labor required for the co-operative planning of the curriculum. Neither is there any sense to the idea that it can be planned "on the spot," with improvisation and opportunistic grabbing at accidentally and incidentally thought-out solutions. No one who is interested in the best development of children will object to their educational development being planned—and planned in advance. The usual objections to preplanning are directed at the *kind* of planning done, and not against the principle of planning itself. Obviously, any plan that prescribes minutely and arbitrarily for every activity in which children engage is a plan that should be condemned. But those people who have the intelligence and insight into children's needs can be expected to look forward and decide the over-all direction in which they should go. A school without a plan is as helpless and inefficient as a ship without a rudder.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING IS DIFFERENT

The exact nature of the difference between the curricular prescriptions of conventional schools and those proposed in this chapter may be found in the source from which these plans arise and in the characteristics of the planning itself. It is apparent that there must be a broad base of common agreements concerning the educational program to be developed in the individual classroom. Each teacher must feel that the program agreed upon, at least in part, is the prod-

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uct of her own thinking. These agreements will deal all the way from the relatively minor ones, such as what arithmetic will be taught in the third grade, to the complex major decisions concerning the patterns of experience to be offered children for their growth toward achievement of a specified kind of adulthood.

The second characteristic of the new kind of planning relates to the nature of the plans. Much of the present objection to planning could be eliminated if greater concern were shown over the kinds of plans made. It would be highly inconsistent if teachers were freed from domination so that they might make intelligent plans for children and then deny children the same privilege. It must be remembered that the primary purpose of inviting teachers to participate in planning is to give them experiences which they will then pass on to the children. If they plan too rigidly or too much in detail children will be denied the experience of planning on their own level. One of the important features of teacher planning is the inclusion of opportunities for children to plan co-operatively with their teacher, within the framework of the curriculum program envisaged by the faculty. There is no need to adopt an either-or attitude toward planning—(*either* the teachers do all the planning *or* the children do all the planning).

It would be inappropriate in this book to set up the exact nature and specific detail of these plans. That is a matter directly concerning the individual staffs which undertake such a program. Our purpose will have been served if we point out some of the major factors in such an undertaking, with some suggestions to the principal of ways of avoiding some of the more common pitfalls.

It is well to remember that curriculums differ in relation to the *place* where they are in operation and the *time* at which they are put in operation. What is a good curriculum for one school might be entirely inadequate for another. A good curriculum which sufficed in 1890 is no longer appropriate for today. It would be impossible, and also unwise, to set up a standard by which all schools were

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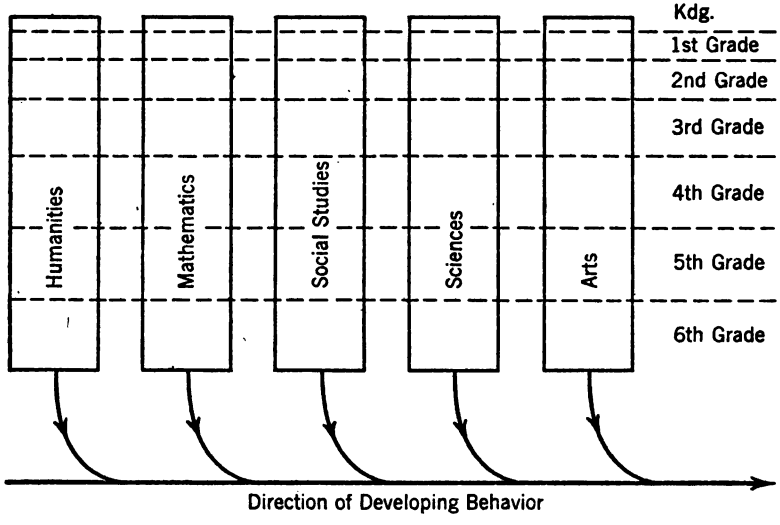
measured and which would be a model for all schools to follow. The most effective method of solving individual school problems is for those involved co-operatively to make decisions which best suit their purposes. This is the *best* curriculum for that school at that time.

SUBJECT MATTER VS. EXPERIENCE CURRICULUM

There are many definitions of what a curriculum is; as many as there are people to put them in operation. In general, two schools of thought emerge which represent the opposing positions: One group thinks of the curriculum as an organized body of subject matters that are systematically and sequentially arranged by grades. The other group thinks of curriculum as a set of developmental experiences through which children are led during their stay in the elementary school. The first group would make the experiences conform to the logically organized subject-matter fields; the latter group would make the subject-matter areas serve the functional activities of children. The opposing points of view may be graphically shown by the following diagram:



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According to those who believe in the subject-matter approach, education consists of the achievement of a desirable minimum of understanding, skill, and insight into the various fields. These have long been considered the "fundamentals" of learning. In order to achieve this objective, each subject field is carefully and painstakingly broken down into smaller units, beginning with those aspects most easily digested and progressing to those of a more complex nature. This is shown above by the horizontal broken lines.

Thus in the elementary school arithmetic has been organized as a sequence of logical units, beginning with addition of whole numbers, progressing through subtraction, multiplication, division, and ending with fractions, decimals, and interest. The language arts are similarly broken down into smaller units, beginning with reading and speaking, but progressing rapidly to the parts of speech, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc., interlarded with punctuation, parsing, conjugating, diagramming.

This approach to an education has a tremendous amount of traditional blessing. It has the virtue of being systematic, orderly, and objective. It is based on the assumption that when an individual completes the prescribed program with success, he will possess all that one needs as a basic foundation to learning. Our present graded school system is built on the acceptance of this viewpoint. Practically all our current educational practice presupposes acceptance.

Opposing this curriculum approach is a proposal that we attack the problem from the standpoint of how children learn. All individuals possess a drive to succeed. What makes for success depends upon the cultural environment into which one is born. If that environment is basically democratic, the individual will succeed to the extent that he possesses the characteristics of a democratic person; thus the arrow in the diagram above represents the direction in which an individual's drives are set—or more properly, *should* be set. The school was instituted as an agency to help the individual

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prepare for effective living; thus the school must help the individual to become more efficiently democratic. We learn from our experiences; therefore, the most effective way to an education is through the reorganization of one's experiences. The school determines which experiences are most likely to prove of maximum value to the individual, and provides him with opportunities to have them. In the process of living these experiences, it is necessary to draw heavily on the accumulated wisdom of man—the subject matters. The amount of understanding of any specific body of knowledge is determined by its contribution to the desirable experiences, and not the other way around (58).

THE FACULTY'S CHOICE

It is not our purpose to get involved in this controversy but merely to point out that one of the earliest considerations of the faculty is an answer to the question: how shall we conceive of the curriculum? It makes a difference in planning whether one uses the subject matters or the experiences of children as a basic starting point.

If, after an adequate amount of discussion and deliberation, the faculty should choose the second alternative, a further question must be decided. Shall this include *all* the experiences children have in life, or only those which they have in school? It is a known fact of educational psychology that children learn all the time, whether that learning is planned or not. What happens to the child out of school has important implications for his school learning. The child who is taught to lie, steal, and bully other children presents a vastly different problem in teaching democratic behavior from that of the child who lives in a democratically organized family group.

Thinking of the curriculum in terms of all the experiences a child has presents a concept that is too large for the faculty to do anything constructive about. The planned program in the school must take into account the needs and individual variations in children, but this

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does not mean that the curriculum must be conceived as including those experiences beyond the power of the school to control. The most satisfactory starting point will be found in considering the curriculum as composed of those experiences teachers plan for children.

Basic Considerations in Curriculum Planning

In making a plan for anything, whether it be for building a house, for a life work, or for the education of children, there are certain basic considerations to be met. While it is not necessary to prescribe in advance what kinds of decisions teachers should make, it is vitally important that they recognize certain undeniable principles in their planning. The principal who desires to guide the staff expertly in the development of curriculum will need to see that the teachers accept the responsibility for agreements of the following bases. In an effort to help the principal understand the factors which dominantly influence any curriculum plan the following high-lighted summary is presented.

1. *A good curriculum plan must be based on the best and most inclusive knowledge we possess about how children grow and develop.* During the past quarter of a century a tremendous amount of research has been conducted to discover the ways children learn, the basic principles of growth and development. Teachers need no longer practice their art in ignorance of what has been discovered. Before any sensible plan can be made teachers must be familiar with the facts. The first step in setting up a curriculum should be an examination of the literature in this field.

To attempt to record here even the sketchiest of outlines of the findings would create a volume of formidable size. If the principal wishes to examine with his staff the major contributions, he will find an excellent summary in the report of the Collaboration Center, the University of Chicago (2). In it the authors have brought together all the pertinent facts about children that may be gleaned

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from many related fields: physiology, biology, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, pediatrics. The reader may find other excellent presentations in the bibliography (3, 18, 23, 47, 48, 55, 96, 107, 112, 113, 124).

2. *A good curriculum plan should be unified for all the years for which the teachers are planning.* If the faculty consists of teachers of grades one to six, their planning will cover all these years. If a kindergarten is provided the plan will cover a seven-year span.

Overall planning by the entire faculty offers many advantages that are immediately apparent, but the difficulties involved are not so readily seen. Traditionally, first-grade teachers know very little about what goes on in sixth grade, and vice versa. First-grade teachers of long standing do not have a sympathetic understanding of children of riper years, due entirely to their lack of experience at that level. In the beginning, teachers whose experience has been rather narrow, will have little to offer in planning the programs for grades other than their own. But no one can deny that it would be desirable for all teachers to be better informed about what takes place in other grades. If each teacher is to make a contribution to the total plan she must have some knowledge of all stages of growth. Working together on the total program would certainly contribute to bridging the gap between primary and intermediate teachers.

The following curricular plan, actually worked out by a staff of teachers, is included for discussion purposes. This is not to be considered an ideal pattern to be adopted and executed by other faculties; it emerged from the thinking of one group and is applicable to that group alone. Acceptance by any other staff would defeat the fundamental thesis of this book. The reader is welcome to study it, to understand the pattern of development it exemplifies, but under no circumstances should it be lifted bodily from context and used uncritically in a new situation.

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PATTERN OF DEVELOPMENT

Roosevelt School
Euclid, Ohio

KINDERGARTEN & GRADE ONE: *Home and School Activities*

The purpose of these two years is to familiarize the child with the immediate environment in which he lives. The work of these grades shall center around an understanding of:

1. The kinds of homes in which people live.
2. The kinds of work done by parents.
3. The necessity for a division of labor.
4. The special uses of the various rooms in a house.
5. A study of the various arrangements of rooms.
6. The place and purpose of school in the child's life.
7. The physical structure of the school and its various services.
8. The natural environment the child meets in his daily living: weather, seasons, local flora and fauna.

GRADE TWO: *The Neighborhood*

This is a natural expansion of the previous year, with an emphasis upon an enlarged environment, including the following:

1. An understanding of the kinds of services provided the home: milkman, postman, grocer, and the work they do.
2. Local community services: stores, police protection, transportation facilities.
3. The geography of the local environment, including the items of local interest, such as kinds of houses, the typical work of residents, special industries.

GRADE THREE: *The Community*

The children should now be ready for a study of the community in which they live, provided it is not too large. All of the integrating activities that make the community have meaning are the proper province of study for this year. Such studies as the following might be included:

1. The over-all community services, such as police and fire protection, public utilities, public services.
2. The structural organization of the community—streets, buildings, industries, businesses.

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3. The geography of the locality: physical features, weather, climate, relation to a section of the country.
4. Relation of the community to other areas, particularly agricultural areas that serve the community.

GRADE FOUR: *The Extended Community*

If the children have gained an understanding of the locality in which they live, and the importance of it to their existence, they should now be ready to place this locality into a wider setting. In second and third grades they have become acquainted with the fact that their community depends upon other communities. The children should now be ready to trace these interrelated services back to their origins, to understand the ways in which the community depends upon outlying districts. These areas might include:

1. The ways by which the local community gets its food supply.
2. The kinds of materials and services the community needs for homes and businesses, such as iron, steel, coal, building materials.
3. The problems of transportation and distribution of these materials.
4. An understanding of the structure, organization, and features of the larger geographic area of which the locality is a part.

GRADE FIVE: *The United States*

The study of the community and its relations to other communities should broaden until the child sees the United States as a total community with interests and requirements of its own. The study should first be of modern U. S. and all its problems that can be understood by fifth-graders, with the historical antecedents referred to as needed to enlighten the child about the modern world. Areas to be studied might include:

1. The topographical, soil, and weather features of the country.
2. The various sections of the country and how they contribute to the whole.
3. The necessary amount of history of each section to make its relationship to the whole meaningful.
4. The different kinds of people who are called Americans, and how they came to be here.
5. The kind of government we have and how it works.

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6. Some of the major problems confronting the people, such as unequal distribution of wealth, poverty, disease, racial intolerance, and making people more competent citizens.
7. The modern methods of dissemination of knowledge: newspapers, radio, magazines, books.

GRADE SIX: *The United States in a World Community*

This is a natural expansion of the fifth grade, with the major emphasis on America's place in a community of nations. Because this area is at present in a state of uncertainty, the sixth-grade teacher might well use the emerging events for the field of study. These should include:

1. A superficial knowledge of the Great Powers and their background.
2. An understanding of the recurrence of world wars and their causes.
3. Recognition of the world as an interdependent community of nations that must depend upon co-operation for successful existence.
4. The important role of aviation in reducing the size of the world.
5. The contribution of science to the rapid development of communication on a world-wide basis.
6. America's geographical relation to the world.

The above outline of a curriculum plan is merely a "pattern" that provides direction for individual teachers in carrying out the work of their grade. Its virtue is that it presents a total overview of the program, built on a logical development of a central theme: co-operative living. All of the subject-matter areas will make varying amounts of contribution to the development of this theme. The concern of the faculty which built the outline was concentrated on the importance of the theme to the better living of children, and not upon the necessity for "covering" subject matter.

In addition to this skeletal plan for the development of children's school experiences, the principal will find it helpful to have a further faculty control exercised over the work of individual teachers. The curricular guides, of which the foregoing is merely a sample, would be insufficient guidance for the development of class-

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room programs. The second step is to construct more detailed plans, by grades, that will provide a meatier structure. This classroom plan, traditionally called a "course of study" but which we shall call "learning units," is one that should be originally constructed by a single teacher, then submitted to the faculty for approval. If the school is large enough to have more than one section for each grade, all the teachers of that grade level might co-operatively work out the learning units.

The learning units for any one year cannot be predicted in advance for any specific school, but the following elements might be present. This list of desirable elements ought to be made up by the faculty as a whole. It is conceivable that the group of teachers who actually construct such a list will differ with the following list.

OUTLINE FOR A LEARNING UNIT

1. A list of the valuable experiences the children should have.
2. A list of the desirable goals in specific subject matter that will probably be achieved.
3. The kinds of books to be used in providing study materials for the children.
4. The environmental sources to which the children may go for first-hand experiences.
5. Community resources that might be brought into the classroom for enrichment of understanding, such as important people, industrial exhibits, collections of items of local interest.
6. The audio-visual aids to be used in presenting the work of the grade.
7. The procedure by which the teacher will attempt to measure progress and achievement.

At the end of the year teachers might be expected to report in writing on the work they covered during the year, which could include the following items:

1. A description of the ways in which children's activities were developed.
2. A criticism by the teacher of the success achieved in conducting the program.

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3. The areas of subject matter covered.
4. Test records or other objective data of the specific learnings of children.
5. Presentation of actual samples of the work done by the children in the "fundamentals."
6. Examples of methods the teacher used in organizing and administering the program.
7. Books used in developing knowledge and understanding.
8. The kinds of activities in which children engaged, such as handcraft, field experiences, dramatics, etc.
9. Actual photographs, if possible, of the children's work in progress.

One important consideration is absent from this sample presentation: the participation of the children themselves in the formation of their year's work. Because this activity is beyond the scope of this book, it is deliberately omitted. For the sake of honesty, however, we wish to state categorically that any plan can ignore the participation of children only at the risk of seriously impairing its efficacy. If teacher participation in the formation of school policy is fundamentally practicable, the same reasoning holds for the participation of children in the development of their programs. The above outline refers exclusively to the kind of planning done by teachers *before* they attempt to plan *with* children. It should in no way interfere with, but should actually facilitate, the work teachers do with their children.

Approach to the development of curriculum by the above-suggested procedure is essentially experimental. The faculty makes the plans for the school as a whole, with each teacher expected to contribute to the development of group policy. This original plan is tried out for a year, with constant and continuous evaluation and modification as the year progresses. At the end of the year each teacher makes a detailed report of her estimation of success, with ample evidence to support her conclusions. As a result of this experience the staff formulates a revised policy on the basis of the experience gained. The curriculum is in continuous revision, being

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improved by the previous experiences of the teachers but never reaching a state of perfection that will justify no further change.

As the reader can readily imagine, this kind of faculty planning will require an immense amount of time and energy. Teachers will often complain of the amount of work it entails, and wonder if the product is worth it. But there is no royal road to the progressive improvement of education. The staff has a clear alternative: either devote the necessary time to this kind of activity and reap a harvest of greater satisfaction in work well done, or choose to follow implicitly the plans of the "curriculum expert" that are made in advance and will suit the needs of their boys and girls more or less accidentally. The second alternative is the method that has been followed for many years and has not yielded the promise for improvement that we would wish. If the experimental method advocated above is sincerely tried and intelligently guided, it has the virtue of holding tremendous promise for the future. Nothing is lost in the venture and much can be gained.

3. *A good curriculum plan should include a recognition of the school's relation to the community in which it operates.* Until very recently the trend in curriculum development has been steadily *away* from activities that have any relationship to the community in which the children live the greater part of their lives. These out-of-school experiences ought to have a direct bearing on what is taught in school. The trend of the past needs to be reversed; we must look upon the school as an integral part of the community, a part that interacts with the parent body. Acceptance of this point of view does not necessarily mean that all other considerations must be subordinated to this sole factor, but it does mean that the faculty must accept its implications for the program. A rather comprehensive and enlightened understanding of the community by the teachers is a mandatory prerequisite to the development of a good curriculum.

Olsen, et al. (106), have been particularly helpful in suggesting

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the areas of community living that the faculty must know about. In the first place, some notion of what a community is, and how it operates, should be gained by the teachers. The particular community which the school serves may be broken up into various divisions in the following manner:

A. Community Setting
   1. Physical setting
      (a) Climate
      (b) Size
      (c) Topography
      (d) Soil and fertility
      (e) Water resources
      (f) Mineral deposits
      (g) Forest and animal resources
   2. Human Setting
      (a) Population number
      (b) Age and sex composition
      (c) Educational status
      (d) Occupational status
      (e) Nationality pattern
      (f) Racial minority groups
      (g) Class and caste structure

B. Community Processes and Problems
   1. Utilizing natural environment
   2. Appreciating the past
   3. Adjusting to people
   4. Exchanging ideas
   5. Making a living
      (a) Occupations
      (b) Industries, commerce, professional services
      (c) Pleasant services
      (d) Conditions of work
      (e) Labor organizations
      (f) Business organizations
      (g) Technological trends
      (h) Assistance to needy and dependent
   6. Sharing in citizenship

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7. Maintaining health and safety
8. Improving family life
9. Securing education
10. Meeting religious needs
11. Enjoying beauty
12. Engaging in recreation

C. Community Agencies
   1. Types
      (a) Governmental
      (b) Commercial
      (c) Private noncommercial
   2. Scope of service
   3. Community planning

Many of the facts called for in this outline are readily available to the faculty. Vital statistics may be obtained from the census figures; various civic organizations have already made a sufficient number of surveys to be able to provide teachers with much of the factual knowledge. It would be wasteful to make an original survey of the community when so much is already done. But the basic information about the community must be collated so that the teachers have a comprehensive, unified picture of the community with which they must interact.

Further than merely knowing about the community is the necessity of including in the plans some intention of using community resources for the education of children. Olsen recommends that the following ten procedures be considered as "bridges" between the "mainland of life" and the "island of school" (106).

1. Documentary materials
2. Audio-visual aids
3. Resource visitors
4. Interviews
5. Field trips
6. Surveys
7. School camping
8. Extended field trips

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9. Service projects
10. Work experiences

Space prohibits any elaboration of these ten methods of bridging the gap between school and community. Our purpose is merely to call attention to the need for using a knowledge of the community in curriculum planning, and suggest the means by which this knowledge may be gained and utilized in the plan.

4. *A good curriculum plan should make provision for individual differences in children.* Since no two children are alike, nor do they grow at the same rates of speed or according to the same growth patterns, it is only natural that we should expect to find different children to be at different levels of learning at the same age. Regardless of the efforts directed toward achieving uniformity in learning, children persist in being different. During the past few years we have come to believe that differences are desirable, that the rich variety in human beings makes life interesting and enjoyable.

Since children are different, the curriculum planned for them must take the fact into account. Some schools have tried to meet this requirement by developing what they call the "multiple-track" curriculum, with provision for different sets of requirements for the slow, average, and fast learners. While this plan is superior to that of requiring all children to meet the same standards, it has two rather serious drawbacks.

In the first place, it reduces but does not eliminate the amount of standardization expected of all children. Within the slow group, for instance, there will be a range of abilities from high to low. If all children in this section are expected to meet the same standard—and that standard is set at the mid-point in the group—the upper levels of that group will not be challenged sufficiently, and the lower levels will be overchallenged.

In the second place, the basic assumption on which the three-track program is based appears to be emphasizing the wrong thing. It assumes that since the fast learners can get through the essential

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materials at a more rapid rate, they will therefore have more time for "enrichment," while the slow learners will have to spend all their time on the basic material.

If we know anything about slow learners it is that these children are desperately in need of enrichment in life. The so-called foundation material will have little value to them in later life. Its main purpose is to assure the learner of successful later *school* life. What they need more than the bright, who can be expected to gain much enrichment through their own native intelligence, is the opportunity to gain some satisfaction in life, some interesting activities that will bring happiness to the extent never possible in their more abstract school studies.

This is a debatable point, but one on which the teachers may wish to concentrate for their own enlightenment. Whatever conclusion they come to after full and free discussion of the topic is the one on which they must operate. The principal should be certain that they have seriously considered all of the ramifications before making a final decision.

If the individuality of children is to be cherished and protected, it is important that the curriculum plan be based on an agreement that there can be no strict adherence to grade standards of achievement. This may come as a shock to those who are horrified and disturbed when the comfortable base of subject-matter achievement is pulled unceremoniously from under them. But an intelligent analysis of the facts causes one to make this conclusion. If Johnny, age six, and Mary, age six, are two different people, with different learning patterns and different rates of learning, but both possessing the same level of intelligence, how can we expect them both to achieve the same degree of satisfactory achievement in the same given length of time? These are only the extremely basic considerations of differences. We might add any number of other factors that make Johnny and Mary different. For instance: social development, emotional maturity, physical growth, presence or absence of

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physical defects, endocrine balance, etc., etc. When all these are added up they make an imposing list of factors that will inexorably make Johnny and Mary different—over none of which the teacher has any control. No matter how expertly these two children are taught, the results will differ—and may differ so radically that, on the basis of standard achievement, Johnny might fail the grade and Mary pass with flying colors. It seems clear that the establishment of set standards by grades will work disadvantageously for the individual child.

Does this leave the faculty with no alternatives other than to let each teacher determine success of her children, or agree to the principle of 100 percent promotion? Neither conclusion is necessary. If the teachers plan wisely for the experiences they are to provide children, and each teacher accepts the children where they are and moves them in the direction co-operatively agreed upon as fast as each child can go, what more can be expected of them? All that remains is sincere, competent teaching to assure maximum growth for each child.

Essentially, what we are proposing is that teachers intelligently and rationally explore the bases of promotion on which they are now working, recognizing the extent to which it encompasses the principles of child growth, and wherein it fails. From this critical analysis the staff may decide to construct a new set of principles that more accurately meets the needs of children.

5. *A good curriculum plan will include a planned use of the great bodies of logically organized subject-matter content.* Even though the faculty may elect to use the experience approach it would be unfortunate if the teachers ignored the contribution organized subject-matter may make to the education of children. Man has spent thousands of years accumulating bodies of knowledge that represent his total wisdom to date. The question before the faculty should not be whether the organized content of man's past shall be used, but in what way may it be used to best advantage. Attention

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was called earlier in the chapter to the need of the faculty to make some decision in this matter.

When we consider these bodies of knowledge it is extremely difficult to do so without adopting a reverent attitude that precludes all scientific analysis and inquiry. It is here that the principal will find his most severe task. His only hope of success lies in his ability to persuade teachers that a fresh examination of current proposals for subject-matter usage in the curriculum be undertaken with the view to discovering what modifications are indicated. Space prohibits more than a mere listing of the sources to which the principal and staff may go for answers to this problem. Exhaustive and competent treatment of these areas may be found in the bibliography (13, 25, 26, 76, 103, 116, 137).

6. *A good curriculum plan will include a statement of the philosophy of education which guides its development.* Practical problems have philosophic bases. The answers to many concrete questions can sometimes be found only by recourse to one's system of values. Educational research will be only partially helpful in resolving conflicts that may arise between teachers with opposing philosophies of education and of life. As members of a faculty work out the practical details of their curriculum, it would be surprising if some of these basic difficulties in point of view did not emerge and obstruct the smooth development of agreement. But any attempt on the principal's part to force agreement through a consideration of the facts will result in stubborn resistance and emotional antagonism.

Most of us possess a hodgepodge collection of semirelated values that do not exist comfortably together. We may discover that we believe in strict discipline for children in the classroom but desire our own offspring to have a great deal of freedom. We may expect other people to conform to rules but object strenuously to their imposition in our own lives. Consistency in thinking is not a virtue that is particularly apparent in the lives of most people.

This is probably due to not working very hard at the job of

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developing a consistent, logical, organized philosophy of life. Our experiences have been fragmentary and contradictory, resulting in reactions uncontrolled by a central point of view. The principal who is concerned with co-operative planning will find this unplanned and often unconsciously held philosophy of teachers will get in the way of real progress in group agreement.

Direct attack on this problem during the initial stages of co operative thinking is sure to result in disaster. Any group that desires to find agreement in subjective and abstract phases of living must first have a common set of experiences on the more concrete, objective level. Only after a group has found success and satisfaction in solving problems on this level will it profit to approach deliberately a statement of philosophy. A great deal of time must first be spent on the following considerations before the nucleus of a philosophy of education will emerge:

1. The detailed administrative problems of the school, such as: the physical management of children, the distribution of textbooks and supplies, the development of assembly programs, and other matters of a comparatively concrete nature.
2. A study of the *facts* of child growth and development, the findings of educational psychology, and all related *facts* that bear on the education of children.
3. The considered application of these facts to the school situation; the implications they hold for changes in the curriculum.

These three phases of discussion are listed in the order in which they should be taken up. While the actual faculty situation will not allow for the nice, orderly development of these areas in the sequence given, it will pay to adhere to it wherever possible. The principal need not worry about the eventual emergence of philosophic issues; they will inevitably arise from any attempts to find solutions for the practical problems which teachers daily face. His problem will be to delay such discussions until a large fund of common experiences has been accumulated.

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When a group has spent considerable time on the above, it will become apparent to all that the major stumbling block to further agreement is in the realm of values. If the teachers are sufficiently determined to move forward they may be willing at this time to make a frontal attack on the statement of their emerging philosophy. It would be well to state this philosophy under the following main headings:

1. The ideal curriculum for children.
2. The kind of schools and school buildings needed for this curriculum.
3. The best relationship between school and its society.
4. The nature of American civilization.
5. The kind of world in which it would be desirable to live.
6. The most important characteristics of human beings.

Space does not allow elaboration of these areas. The reader will find stimulating discussions in the bibliography (9, 15, 19, 22, 31, 38, 40, 58, 59, 60, 90, 101).

Obstacles to the Development of Philosophy

1. *Conflict between the new and the old.* There are several practical problems the principal will discover as he tries to guide the teachers through a consideration of their basic beliefs about education. In the first place will be the eternal conflict between the new and the old. For nearly twenty-five hundred years we have existed with a concept of life and of education that has the hoary hand of tradition as its main support. We have been inured to the doctrine that all that is important to be said has already been said; all that is important to be known has already been discovered. Education is a matter of cherishing these eternal truths and recording them for future posterity. Anything new under the sun is immediately subject to suspicion as a rank interloper or as a misleading restatement of an old truth. If we want to know the answers to any social or cultural problem, our best source of information is recourse to what has already been given as the answer.

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In contrast to this dominant theory there has arisen since the advent of scientific method a point of view that everything is new and different. Each truth, valid at the time it was discovered, must be reinterpreted in the light of each person's present-day experiences. Everything is relative to a point of reference and a set of conditions. Those who hold to this concept of reality are in serious conflict with those who hold to the permanent establishment of all things. In education this results in the "traditionalists" and the "progressives" meeting on different sides of a broad chasm of philosophic disagreement. One group will want to set up an educational program that inculcates in children an understanding and acceptance of the truths of the past. The other will be primarily interested in presenting children with experiences from which they may discover and interpret those things which appeal to them as true (15).

Many of us view anything new with suspicion. This will be specially true of teachers. The progressives in education have fallen into disrepute only partly because of their excesses and misinformed practices. It is more likely that the large majority of teachers distrust and disfavor the progressives because their philosophic point of view directly challenges the basic beliefs of most teachers.

Hope for eventual agreement can come only by concentrating on whatever factual materials can be supplied. An examination by the teachers of their own experience with learning anything new will reveal the truth or falsity of the claim that everything is the same for all time, or is novel in each person's life. Even if the members of the staff find it impossible to arrive at any immediate agreement, the mere fact of engaging in a refreshing attack upon an old problem will provide some opportunity for gradual shifts in positions. Changes in fundamental points of view must of necessity come slowly. The principal will find it helpful to make clear to the teachers that no one expects an overnight reversal of formerly held positions. It would be an unusual group which was capable of appreciably

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narrowing the chasm of difference in less than a school year exclusively devoted to this purpose.

2. *Emotional reactions.* The problem of reducing the conflict between the new and the old will be made more difficult by the fact that too many of us tend to do our thinking more with our emotions than with our intellects. It is a common experience to observe individuals who are unexpectedly confronted with a point of view radically different from theirs to demonstrate their emotional reaction through a flushing of the face, a muscular tension in the body, and a willingness to object strenuously almost before they have had an opportunity to define clearly the nature of the opposing point of view. This can usually be observed when one uses the term "progressive education" to a group of teachers indoctrinated with the traditional point of view. The individual teacher may never have seen a progressive at work, she may have no concrete conception of what is involved in the theory, but she is immediately sure it cannot be anything good.

It is not our purpose here to defend progressive education. Its claim to intelligent recognition must be found in a study of the theory. But it is clear that such highly emotional reactions can have only one result—a complete stoppage of all thinking and a denial of any opportunity to discover if there is any merit in the theory.

It will not be easy for the principal to exercise rigid control over the emotions of teachers in group discussion. The road to a better kind of co-operative thinking is long and arduous. Success, if even partial, can be achieved only if the principal himself exemplifies a form of control that is worthy of emulation. He will find it difficult to remain cool and collected during a specially heated argument, and if he gets in and takes an emotional position, no real progress toward agreement can possibly be made. As conference chairman it is his responsibility to see that all points of view are freely expressed and given fair hearing without prejudice. Perhaps the most he can hope for in the beginning is a rather negative control of

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emotional reactions, a conscious prohibition of any display of feeling. Gradually, over a period of time, this reaction may become habitual.

3. *The relation between theory and practice.* A third difficulty will be the confusion in the minds of the teachers concerning exactly what they are trying to do. What is being practiced in the classroom will represent what is temporarily achievable, while the statement of philosophic position will represent what is considered ultimately desirable. Some teachers will view the discrepancy with a great deal of mental discomfort. They have always attempted to "practice what they preach" and it will disturb them not to be able to do so. They will want to know what is the sense of all this idealistic talk when we know it cannot be achieved, at least not in the foreseeable future.

It will take a bit of cleverness to disabuse the members of the staff of the notion that because theory and practice are not close together teachers are therefore incompetent. It is necessary to insist that the separation is a natural state of being. Attention should be directed, not solely on where the teachers ultimately plan to go, but also on the great steps forward that have been made in a given period of time. If the staff has kept adequate records of past achievement, and can make some significant judgments concerning the amount of progress, the discouragement over the distance yet to be traveled can be materially reduced. In this direction lies sanity.

4. *Individual differences.* One of the most disturbing problems will be the predictable differences in teacher growth toward the full acceptance of the group's ideals. Some teachers will be able to accustom themselves to the emerging philosophy of the group more readily than others. This will make for spotty development of the group as a whole.

It is inevitable that those who are able to adjust themselves at a more rapid rate will feel irritation and disgust for those more deliberate or stubborn. The principal will find his hands full in controlling the rise of emotional problems that come with intolerance.

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At all costs, it is imperative that the teachers recognize the individual right of each to make progress at her own rate of speed. Individual variations in growth will enrich the program, and also provide an element of safety to group progress. There is always the danger that a group may go dangerously far in application of a new idea without due heed for caution and careful consideration of the results. Every faculty needs the more cautious, skeptical teacher who can act as a brake to the overenthusiasm of others. These people should be respected for what they have to offer the group, rather than being reviled for "dragging their feet." The principal should bring this point forcibly to the attention of the group, thereby earning the respect of both the radical and the conservative.

5. *Language difficulties.* Of all the obstacles to be encountered in the formulation of a philosophy of education the major one will be words. There is grave danger that any discussion of an abstract character will get impaled on the many meanings for the words used. Meanings are derived from one's experiences. Words are attached to these meanings. Instead of quarreling over the meaning of *words,* it is necessary first to discover the meanings of *people.* A short course in semantics would go a long way in helping the faculty avoid this pitfall. It goes without saying that the principal must be an expert himself before he can hope to guide the activity of other people in a sane use of language. It might be well for the staff to engage in a group study of one of the simpler and more entertaining presentations of semantics, such as Hayakawa's *Language in Action,* before making any serious attempt to agree on a philosophy of education (53) (see also 24, 28, 34, 71, 75, 77, 105, 131).

SUMMARY

In general, the development of a group philosophy of education will take place in much the same way it develops in individual teachers. If one's personal philosophy is the result of one's experiences, the same may be said for the group. If the individual's philos-

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ophy is the result of slow growth over a number of years, the same may be expected of the group. It would be unfortunate if the principal expected to achieve a unanimously accepted group point of view in a short space of time. Only disappointment and rejection of group thinking can result from such expectation. Not only must the principal be patient and tolerant with the group as a whole, but he must be careful to make it clear that teacher growth is expected to be a slow process.

Throughout the staff's continuous deliberations the principal can be of major assistance if he functions primarily as discussion leader. He will want to take every precaution to see that the teachers think as consistently as possible. He should be willing to admit at the outset that the tentative conclusions of the staff may not be in complete accord with his private opinion of what is "right." Within the limitations to be discussed later, he must be willing to go along with group thinking in exactly the same way he will expect every other member to. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that a group judgment will always be different from that of any individual. A spirit of fair play, tolerance, and willingness to abide by the decisions of the group are prime requisites of success. The extent to which the principal possesses these qualities will determine to a large degree the success of the group's endeavors.

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IV

THE PRINCIPAL AS EXECUTIVE OF GROUP POLICY

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CHAPTER VI

The Principal as Interpreter of Faculty Policy

THE NEW ROLE OF SUPERVISION

When the faculty makes the fundamental choice of determining the policies of the school, the kind of supervisory program to adopt is a matter of prime importance. When teachers have determined co-operatively what the program of the school shall be, and have fashioned in broad outline the most promising methods of implementing that program, all the work has not been completed. No self-respecting teacher would insist that she is individually capable of executing these decisions without some kind of assistance.

It is difficult for one who is closely connected with an activity to gain proper perspective of what is being accomplished. The old saw, "Can't see the woods for the trees," describes the situation of the teacher who works closely with the children in her classroom. However, an interested outsider, seeing the children at more infrequent intervals, may often discover growth and progress not apparent to the teacher.

This leads one to the conclusion that teachers need help in promoting the best program for their children. Even when the school program is co-operatively determined this need still exists. The teachers will be even more anxious to receive assistance because the program is the one that represents their own ideas.

Thus aid to the individual teacher becomes a central responsibility of the leader of the faculty group. Traditionally, this service has been called "supervision," but the intent in the past has been vastly different from that proposed in this volume. The older type of

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supervision is characterized by a desire to make the teacher more proficient in carrying out the policies of the administrator. This newer approach presupposes that the principal will be mainly concerned with assisting the teacher to become more conscious and better informed of the goals she has helped to set up, and help her implement these goals through her activities in the classroom.

It is important that the principal recognize the changed relationship to the function of supervision. It is no longer important for him to determine whether or not a teacher is doing what he personally thinks is best. The teacher and principal meet on equal ground in the classroom, each having equal authority in determining what is proper and what is not. Whatever judgments he may make are personal, carrying with them only the weight of his educational competence. If it so happens that the principal is more enlightened concerning the interpretation of the group's policy, his judgment should carry more authority for this reason only. But it cannot be emphasized too strongly that his administrative position does not thereby give his opinion greater validity than that of the classroom teacher.

If the technique of co-operative supervision is functioning properly, the classroom teacher will feel little apprehension for the principal's presence in her room. She should be less concerned, from the standpoint of security in her job, whether or not he approves of what she is doing. If his lack of approval is based on educationally valid grounds, it merely indicates a needed change in her program. The sole determining factor which decides her work must be the extent to which she is contributing to the promotion of the group's policy.

The following example of the principal functioning in the above described way, taken from an actual situation, may help to clarify the point.

Miss Ford, a third-grade teacher, asked the principal to visit her classroom because she wanted help on the matter of getting her class

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to work more quietly. She explained that whenever she conducted an activity in which the children were not required to sit quietly in their seats they became excessively noisy.

A visit to Miss Ford's room confirmed her description. The children were engaged in the construction of a library corner in which they would carry on their free-reading activities. The noise was terrific. Children shouted across the room to one another. Some used the screen of confusion to idle away their time, wandering around the room and interfering with the few children who preferred to work. When one child wanted to borrow a hammer or saw from another, he called loudly for the loan, instead of using the quieter method of walking over to the prospective loaner and asking for it in a normal tone of voice.

As soon as the teacher attempted to assist an individual child he immediately became all business, showing great concern for the advice she gave. When her back was turned he reverted to his former occupation of being a general nuisance. Occasionally, the teacher would call a halt to all activity until the room was quiet. The children complied with the request for order long enough to wait until the teacher was busily engaged with some child, then the crescendo of noise would rise, to be subdued only by harsh disciplinary methods.

The principal observed that this difficulty occurred only when the children were engaged in more informal activities. In subsequent visits he noticed that when the children were involved in the more traditional activities, such as reading, spelling, or arithmetic lessons, they conducted themselves in an exemplary fashion, with noise at a minimum.

This was Miss Ford's first year in a school which had the reputation of being "progressive." Her own background was considerably more formal, but she had expressed a great enthusiasm and desire to modify her teaching methods in accordance with the general policy of the faculty. It was quite easy for the principal to conclude

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that the teacher's greatest difficulty was a lack of understanding of what constituted an appropriate informality in school, coupled with a lack of experience with the methods of obtaining it. The teacher admitted that she had introduced an activity period with very little understanding of what was involved. She had thought that getting children busy on things in which they were interested would automatically eliminate the necessity for strict discipline. Apparently something more than that was involved.

During the conference which followed, the principal asked the teacher if she had noticed that she had little or no difficulty with discipline during periods when she was dominantly in control of the group. He pointed out that in the case of the formal period authority was present, but that in the informal period it was absent. The teacher expressed surprise at the idea that strict discipline could be exercised when the teacher was attempting to develop a sense of freedom and self-discipline. Would not the strict discipline destroy one of the main purposes of the period? It was evident that the teacher thought in terms of *teacher* discipline, or none at all.

A rather lengthy discussion ensued concerning the role of teacher control of children's conduct. It was pointed out that children will react to the kind of control which gives them the greatest satisfaction. Their typical experience in a formal lesson was to acquiesce to the will of the teacher. Long practice in doing so had made them feel secure in such conduct. The teacher's skill in making her control pleasant had influenced them to respond positively. However, during the newer informal periods no such tradition controlled their behavior; they naturally reverted to the kind of behavior which is characteristic of children in completely free play: lack of organization, free expression of physical urges, and a lack of feeling of need for restraint. It was quite clear that what the teacher needed was to institute a method of group control which, in the beginning, would be more like that used by the teacher. Gradually this control could be released as the children found enjoyment in the activ-

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ity itself and had learned to conduct themselves in an orderly manner.

Subsequent visits were required to help the teacher maintain perspective in regard to this new technique which she and the principal had co-operatively worked out. The children needed a carefully controlled redirection of their energies; the teacher needed to revaluate her goals; the principal needed further experience with the class in order to be intimately acquainted with all aspects of the teacher's problem.

Notice that the principal at no time made a judgment of the teacher, or the quality of her work. His concern was solely that of helping to solve a problem to the mutual benefit of teacher and children. His ability to sit in the classroom, removed from the necessity of carrying on the educational activity, gave him an opportunity to evaluate the experience in a way denied the teacher. Without the help of such an interested outsider it is possible that the teacher would have struggled for many a week, finally giving it up as a bad job, concluding that this business of giving children freedom was a lot of impractical theory.

Methods of Supervision

INITIATION OF THE PROGRAM

Since the policy for the program is determined in faculty meetings, it is only natural that it is here the program for supervision may be determined. There will be many practical questions to be answered by the group, some of which the teachers will be able to give at once, and others will be made after considerable and deliberate experimentation. For instance, one of the first questions is that of how classroom visits may be initiated.

It is customary, under a typical regime, for the principal to decide that for himself. If he is a conscientious person he will usually set up a systematic program of class visiting, allotting a reasonable

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amount of time for this duty. He may even take into consideration the teacher's desires with reference to the amount of time he spends in her classroom, and the frequency with which he visits. But in general he has his own immutable purposes, which result in spending the major proportion of time with those teachers about whose adequacy he has the gravest doubts. No wonder teachers view the principal's visits with fear and trepidation.

When the faculty decides how the principal shall conduct his supervisory visits, they will need to determine when and how often he visits the individual teachers. There are three ways they may choose to have him operate: either delegate complete freedom to the principal to do as he sees fit, place classroom visiting on an invitational basis, or set up a supervisory program in faculty meetings which will definitely determine his activities.

1. *The principal initiates the program.* If he has complete freedom he must make his own decisions as to how he shall act. Shall he make a formal schedule in which he attempts to see each teacher an equal amount of time? We all know that some teachers need more help than others. How does he know who needs help? On what basis shall he decide to answer that question? Arbitrary imposition of his own values and judgments at this point will lead us directly back to the form of supervision we are attempting to avoid.

2. *The individual teacher requests supervision.* This method seems to conform most consistently with the policy of allowing teachers freedom to execute group decisions, but it presents a difficulty well known to those who have attempted it. The intelligent, forward-looking teacher will be continually conscious of her shortcomings and make frequent and repeated demands for help. The less interested, more phlegmatic teacher will find little reason to seek his assistance. Pursuance of this policy will ultimately lead to the better teachers getting increasingly more proficient, and the poorer becoming increasingly less capable.

3. *The faculty determines the program.* The safest and most

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profitable procedure seems to be that of the faculty clearly and frankly recognizing its own limitations and planning a program that will offer the greatest promise of success. The principal might be instructed to spend the earlier part of the school year in general supervision, meeting all teachers with equal frequency in order to obtain an over-all perspective of the program. During these more formal visits he could seek opportunities to be invited to return when he can be of further assistance. If this help has been practical and effective, the teacher will not resent his continued contacts. The ambitious teacher will readily admit her need for help, the less interested will be spurred to greater activity as a result of his visits. If he consistently holds to the original purpose of his visiting and actually helps teachers to do a better job, from which they will obtain increased satisfaction, he will not find enough time in the day to make all the visits desired.

Recognition of the normal weaknesses of human beings will force one to the conclusion that, while this plan looks good on paper, in actual situations it will not materialize so ideally. Even the best of teachers, deeply involved in their own classroom problems, will let opportunities slip by in which the principal could have been of some help. Some of this neglect occurs because of the teacher's interpretation of what constitutes a reason for the principal's coming to the room. Because teachers have been accustomed to inspectorial visits, they may measure the value of the principal's presence only in terms of his ability to give an opinion on the quality of their work. A broader interpretation would eliminate some of these missed opportunities.

ACTIVITIES OF SUPERVISORS

1. *Observation.* The most helpful kind of supervision is given when the teacher is conscious of a problem and desires some assistance in solving it. For instance, one teacher was desirous of obtaining a better quality and kind of discussion in her social studies class.

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Try as she would, the children seemed willing to sit back and let the teacher tell them the answers. After a succession of such discouraging experiences she asked the principal to visit and offer suggestions that would improve the program.

The principal arranged to be present at the desired time. He sat in the back of the room and tried to see as clearly as possible all the factors of the situation. He noticed that when the teacher began the discussion she told the children what they were going to discuss, for instance, "Why the Europeans Came to America." The children had previously referred to many historical accounts of events leading up to the colonization of America; it was apparent that they knew what was in the books. The class program consisted of the teacher asking a question which would elicit a factual response from the pupils. Once the question was answered the teacher saw no alternative but to go on to the next question.

After the visit the principal pointed out that the absence of discussion was due largely to the lack of any controversial material, or any attempt to get the pupils to go beyond an analysis of the facts. He suggested some concrete types of questions that might be asked, the answers for which were not in the books. On a subsequent visit he noticed that the teacher was having much less difficulty in getting the children to talk. She expressed great satisfaction over her progress.

In such a visit the principal had a real reason for being in the room. He concentrated his attention on the factors on which the teacher needed help. He offered practical assistance and encouraged her to try various procedures on an experimental basis. No attempt was made to get the teacher to give up discussions. No judgment was made of the teacher's abilities. She had already admitted a weakness in that direction, and the principal was able to see improvement on a return visit. Both concentrated on the improvement of the pupils, and neither was primarily concerned with the teacher's pres-

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ent abilities. It was assumed that improvement would come with adequate guidance.

2. *Participation.* Sometimes it is helpful for the principal actually to participate in the program. The teacher who was disturbed about the conduct of her children during an activity period might have been helped more if the principal could see her problem by actually being in the teaching situation. If he comes into the room with the intention of helping the children with their constructive activities, he may get a perspective of the teacher's problem from *her* point of view. Relations among children, the personality clashes that occur, the problems of adequately supervising the energies of thirty-five different personalities, will all be better revealed to the principal who is actively engaged with the children. Through this wider experience the principal should be better able to offer the teacher constructive advice.

3. *Direct teaching.* "Taking over" the class has its values, even if the procedure is endowed with many objections because of its traditional misuse. A class as a whole tends to exhibit a group personality, a knowledge of which will reveal some facts that may lead to an insight into the cause of trouble. Dealing with the whole class will give the principal a chance to see whether the teacher's problem is caused by special individuals, small groups, the class as a whole, the teacher's particular techniques, or her personality in relation to the class. Unless the principal has this wider experience with the whole class, his assistance to the teacher may not be as helpful as he would wish. Handling the class as a whole may provide him with some essential experiences for interpreting the teacher's problem.

FREQUENCY AND DURATION OF VISITS

The length of time and the frequency of his visits should be determined by the problem itself, and the amount of time it takes to get enough information to help the teacher. Some of his visits

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will be by invitation from the teachers; others will result from suggestions he has offered for further experimentation. In some cases he may wish to sit apart from the class and observe it in action; at other times he may feel it will be more enlightening to be a part of the teaching situation. He may find it possible to secure the information in a short period of time, while it will often be necessary to stay with the class for an extended visit. Some of the teacher's problems are relatively minor ones which can be settled in one short visit. Others, such as the example of improvement of classroom discussion, may take many visits extended over a period of time. Any arbitrary determination of the frequency and duration of classroom visits would ignore the individual character of all teaching problems. It seems impossible to set up a program of supervision on a tightly scheduled basis without making it mechanical and inefficient.

SUMMARY

There is no substitute for a principal who is acutely conscious of the needs of his teachers. Neither the faculty members nor the principal will find it particularly helpful to come to an arbitrary decision concerning how he shall operate as interpreter of faculty policy. A great deal depends upon the principal's ability to create a smooth-working relationship between himself and the teachers, to be practically helpful in all his dealings, and to keep his eyes open for further opportunities to offer assistance. When the teachers discover that it is more profitable and satisfying to get his help, the question of whether he should make his visits by invitation or by set schedule will become purely academic. His problem will be to find enough time to meet all the requests made for his presence in the classroom.

TEACHER CONFERENCES

Much of the help given can be offered at the time of the visit, but usually it is wise for the teacher and principal to meet some time

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later to discuss the class session. At this time the principal is able to give much more detailed assistance.

The time the principal will devote to teachers in conference should have priority over every other kind of activity, with the exception of classroom visiting. It is a truism that schools exist for the benefit of children. It is equally true that the principal exists for the benefit of teachers. Their demands and needs are paramount in importance. Other necessary administrative duties, such as the demands of parents and even the requests of the superintendent, should be managed so that the major portion of his time is available to teachers.

1. *Time for the conference.* Since the teacher's needs are of major importance it seems reasonable to suggest that the conference time should be set at the convenience of the teacher or, better yet, cooperatively determined by the two. In the past, too much emphasis has been placed on the importance of the principal's responsibilities, with the assumption that the teacher should arrange her personal and professional life to fit into his schedule of activities. This has usually resulted in teacher conferences being delayed until all other administrative matters have been disposed of, often requiring the teacher to remain in the building until late in the afternoon awaiting the principal's pleasure.

It is possible to arrange conferences at other times of the day. Teachers are normally expected to be on hand in the morning some time before the formal opening of school. This period might be used for the conference. If the teacher has been successful in teaching children to manage their own affairs without continual adult supervision, her occasional absence during the period before school begins will present no serious complications. It might even be argued that this will give both children and teacher an opportunity to measure the quality of self-discipline of the children.

Many schools have a long enough noon hour so that ample time following luncheon is available into which a conference can be fitted.

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No one would seriously propose that teachers be denied the full use of their free time at noon, but an occasional conference will not greatly restrict this freedom. If teachers have noon-hour supervision of children, a rotation plan could be inaugurated so that individual teachers will not be continuously occupied during the lunch period. The means by which teachers are freed to attend a supervisory conference will be different in every school situation. It is here suggested that some ingenuity be used in making time available so that teachers will not be expected to spend an unreasonable amount of time after school waiting for the principal to see them.

There are certain periods during the regular school day when it can be arranged to free teachers for conferences. During a recess, physical education, music, or library period, one teacher may take charge of two groups of children—her own and those of the teacher who desires a conference with the principal. If the children are sufficiently capable of conducting their own affairs, a period during the day could be used when the teacher might leave them to their own resources. The latter has been attempted in many cases and found to work effectively. It requires a group of children who have had experience in running their own affairs, and a teacher who has been interested over a long period of time in developing in children a capacity for self-direction.

When all is said and done, however, the after-school period still remains the most desirable time. The other periods have certain merit, but they are often vitiated by the pressure of time and the knowledge that one is away from responsibilities. The afternoon period provides a setting that has none of these drawbacks, and a further advantage of giving the conferees a greater length of time in which to work. Its main drawback is the necessary extension of the teacher's day at school, an extension on which many teachers look with disfavor.

In selecting the appropriate time for the conference all of the above possibilities should be canvassed by the teacher and principal

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together. The final decision should result from an agreement which will best meet the requirements of both. Both must be willing to make concessions and adjustments to fit the needs of the case. Sympathetic understanding and a mutual willingness to meet on common ground will promote smoother working relationships between teacher and supervisor.

2. *Relations between teacher and principal.* It is during the conference period that the principal will need to guard most carefully his tendency to pass judgment on the teacher's work. The kind of attitude he takes at this time will largely govern his success in furthering co-operative attack upon the problem of improving teaching. He must remember that his special position is that of interpreter of faculty decisions. The faculty has determined the objectives for the school. The individual teacher may not be fully aware of her part in promoting the program and need further interpretation. She may not conceive clearly the specific steps she must take in order to make her contribution. On the other hand, she may see her part clearly but be unable to put it properly into action. A careful study of the teacher's problem will reveal the specific assistance she needs from the principal. At all times it is important that the teacher be a participating factor in an analysis of the problem. The principal's main function is that of analysis, searching for the factors which will throw light on the problem, and assisting the teacher to see her situation more clearly. The final decision concerning what she is to do about it must be left to her. It would be detrimental to the establishment of proper working relationships if the principal at this point were to assume the responsibility of making the teacher's decision for her.

3. *Frequency of conferences.* This will depend upon a number of things. Some class visits require no further consideration; some conferences are not based on class visits. It would be impossible to say at any stage when it is no longer necessary for teacher and principal to confer, or how many conferences are enough. Some

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teachers will find it necessary to confer with the principal many times on the same problem, depending upon its complexity and difficulty in solution; some will find it valuable to see him on many different problems. It is probably safe to say that, educational procedure being what it is, principals who are truly helpful will never find the day when they are no longer called upon for help. It is also a safe assumption that the teacher will never become so perfect that she can no longer profit from further assistance.

In general, some teachers will need more help than others. If the faculty has learned that there is no disgrace attached to calling on the principal, these teachers will undoubtedly receive a greater proportion of his time. His efforts should be directed to giving them the fullest amount of assistance regardless of the cost in time and energy.

TEACHER INTERVISITATIONS

A technique for the improvement of teaching which holds great promise is that of teachers conducting their own program of supervision. We have so long considered classroom visiting the exclusive prerogative of the principal or supervisor that we have neglected the possible help teachers may be to one another. This type of self-help promises rich rewards to those who explore its possibilities. When the staff is responsible for determining policy and program it is reasonable to assume that anyone engaged in the co-operative enterprise can help anyone else. Since every teacher is intimate with the problems of teaching, the kind of suggestions and advice they can offer to others should be even more helpful than that offered by the principal.

Supervision of one teacher by another has an added virtue—it completely avoids the unpleasant and difficult problem of the principal influencing classroom practice by virtue of his administrative superiority. Under the most favorable conditions the teacher cannot help feeling somewhat sensitive to the point of view of her principal.

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This is completely absent in the situation where one teacher supervises another. If the principal has encouraged teachers to secure guidance wherever they may personally choose, it is natural for them to turn to their own colleagues.

There are some important considerations to be met in setting up this program. While the suggestion and initial promotion may come from the principal, voluntary participation is vital. Little good will result from a legislated program. Starting with two or three teachers who show a willingness to experiment will prove more profitable than attempting to inaugurate the plan on a school-wide basis. Many detailed administrative problems are involved that can be solved progressively if met at first on a small scale.

It will be necessary to make provisions for the teacher who is to do the supervising to be freed from classroom responsibilities during the time she is visiting. This can be handled by arranging for her class, as suggested previously, to double up with another during such periods as physical education, etc. If the teacher is in the primary division her class is likely to dismiss earlier than the upper grades. This time could be used for visiting. The visiting teacher may also be freed from her class through the use of the principal as substitute teacher. Moreover, during such a teaching period the principal will have an opportunity to gain valuable insights into the problems of the teachers for whom he is substituting. (This latter plan will only work if the principal does not have full-time teaching responsibilities of his own.)

All the principles of classroom visiting discussed in connection with the principal as supervisor would hold for the teacher-supervisor, including the conference following the visit. Both the visitor and the visited may desire some assistance from the principal in helping them to carry on the activity more effectively. It is apparent that this kind of experience would be invaluable to the principal in giving teachers a concrete experience with the problems involved

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in supervision. When visited later by the principal these teachers would have more understanding about what is involved.

The principles and practices of good supervision might conceivably form the substance of several faculty meetings prior to the experiment on the part of the two teachers. Full discussion of the visiting teacher's actions, the methods she may use in helping the visited teacher, and what might be done during the conference should receive careful consideration. It is here that the principal may do some excellent educating of the entire staff. As he attempts to help the two teachers he may refer back to these faculty discussions as a means of directing their attention to the methods used. If he sits in on the conference he can gain excellent hints as to what will be the most effective methods to use when he is in charge. The conclusion is inescapable: much can be gained and little lost by experimenting with the idea.

If the program of intervisitation catches the fancy of a large number of teachers a rather formal schedule of visiting will need to be constructed. The faculty members may wish to set up this schedule themselves, or they may delegate the responsibility to the principal. In any case it is important to recognize that this kind of unusual activity will call for careful planning on the part of someone, for in their enthusiasm for a new idea the teachers might let the experiment run away with their common sense and the main purpose of the school be subordinated to the fun of teachers visiting each other.

FACULTY RESEARCH

Of all the methods for the improvement of teaching, the one which pays the richest dividends is that of encouraging teachers to develop their own research projects. Not all the answers to the best educational procedures have been given. Many of them remain to be discovered. The experience of undertaking a respectable piece of research, either individually or collectively, will bring

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knowledge of promising educational procedure that teachers will find hard to duplicate. The group enterprise offers even greater reward than that carried on alone.

Some areas that could easily be investigated with profit are such matters as finding a more valid basis for measuring educational development when the curriculum is not based on the acquisition of subject matter. No one has been able to ascertain whether it is best to group children on the basis of age, mental ability, or subject-matter achievement. It would be helpful to know the optimum period of time a teacher should stay with her group. These are only a few of the many areas of needed research in which an enlightened and interested group of teachers, under the guidance of a truly inspired leader, could afford to engage. The opportunities for teachers to gain much needed knowledge would be matched by the opportunities to learn the scientific methods of research.

Many people will object to this suggestion on the ground that public-school teachers have no right to use children as guinea pigs. This objection is based on the assumption that the program we are now using is the best that can be devised. Our primary obligation is to provide children with the very best educational program of which we are capable. Anything that can be done to improve our contribution is the proper province of public-school education. It is reasonable to assume that children who are involved in educational experimentation will take an increased interest in learning. Surely no one can object to a procedure that will increase the interest of children in school. If the experiment is intelligently controlled, it is difficult to see where they are being exploited or harmed. The field of educational research has been restricted too much to the clinical laboratory and the private school. The conditions of public education are often radically different from those in the more controlled situations. In order to test the validity of many of the findings of research they must be applied to the more normal and typical situation of the public school.

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CHAPTER VII

The Principal as Co-Ordinator of Faculty Activities

TRADITIONALLY, it has been customary for the principal to reserve for himself the responsibility of directing the functioning of the school. In the relatively few cases where he has invited the staff to determine policy, he has usually concluded that this is as far as he needs to go. Once the curriculum has been determined, he has taken over the reins of government and executed the policies according to his own best judgment. This has resulted in the principal being completely overburdened with the minutiæ of administrative detail, inundating him with matters that have little educational significance.

The majority of elementary schools in the country are without secretarial assistance. Most principals readily agree that this is unfortunate, but see no way to avoid being a glorified clerk part of the time. They spend altogether too much time delivering the mid-morning milk, keeping records and reports for the superintendent, keeping an accurate account of the distribution of textbooks to teachers, checking on the tardiness and absence of pupils, supervising the care of buildings and grounds, acting as bookkeeper for the sale of savings stamps, and a hundred and one other details. Any one of these responsibilities in itself is not particularly arduous or time-consuming, but when added together they present a total that easily explains why the average principal does not have more time for classroom supervision or other methods for the improvement of teaching. When one adds the frequent necessity for doing some classroom teaching, the picture of the unnecessarily overburdened principal is complete.

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Generally, the principal deplores this situation but does little or nothing about it. No good purpose is served by minimizing the practical difficulties that prevent his being more effective in the school; under any circumstance the business of running a large elementary school is burdensome. But if the principal will accept the easily proved contention that much of this business can be profitably divided among the members of the staff and still satisfy the demands of efficiency, his burden will be measurably lightened.

Some will object to the proposal that teachers share in administrative detail on the grounds that they already have an overloaded schedule and that their primary responsibility is to children. Since a majority of principals also have teaching responsibilities the same argument may be applied to his case. It can be successfully argued that the simplest solution is to employ an office assistant who will be primarily responsible for removing these details from everyone's shoulders. But until Boards of Education see the wisdom of this proposal it is necessary to find some second-best practice.

Under the existing circumstances it is probably best to have the burden of detail divided among many people so that no one individual is required to employ any considerable amount of time in its discharge. Participation by the faculty in administrative detail has the added virtue of providing teachers with a "feel" for the clerical demands on the school office. It is fair to assume that this experience will make all teachers more intelligent in co-operating with others in matters not their direct concern. Some principals are convinced that such participation contributes to a feeling of more important membership in the faculty group. At best, delegation of administrative detail is a method of getting essential work done without burdening anyone.

THE DELEGATION OF SCHOOL BUSINESS

The kinds of responsibilities that can be delegated to the staff members may be conveniently divided into two types: those that

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can best be handled by a single teacher, and those that are better administered by a small committee. There is no hard and fast rule that determines this division. The principal can discover the techniques that work best in his situation by experimentation through group decision.

1. *The campaign manager.* In the average school year there are as many as ten to twelve major campaigns, sales, collections, and drives. All of these necessary activities take a great deal of time to administer. But the administrative techniques required to produce a school play are not too dissimilar from those involved in a candy sale; the former is only a bigger and more important job. Both call for a determination of time, place, method, financial arrangements, etc. These decisions can easily be reached by the staff as a whole in a relatively short period of time—provided the principal rigidly controls the tendency of people to quibble over unimportant details. Once the major arrangements have been made, it takes little ingenuity for any individual to execute the policy. There is no reason why this individual has to be the principal. In one school one of the more business-minded teachers was elected by the staff as "campaign manager." It was agreed that when it was necessary to have a Junior Red Cross roll call, bond rally, candy sale, collection of old newspapers, or any other promotional activity, this single teacher would be expected to organize the program and inform the others of the details she had arranged. The procedure worked exceptionally well. The special teacher had been chosen with considerable attention to her qualifications for the job. Other teachers were willing to delegate this responsibility to her, and showed a willingness to follow her suggestions and plans. The whole problem of detailed administration of these many irritating responsibilities was thus taken from the mind of the principal, so that he could devote his time to leadership of the whole group.

2. *Building and grounds.* Supervision of the building and grounds may also be conveniently delegated to another person, particularly

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if the principal is a man. Most males are not specially noted for their ability to "keep house." Matters of cleanliness and neatness that would be immediately apparent to the discerning female will often escape the notice of the average male. Care of the bulletin-board displays is an activity in which a man is none too proficient. If there is a large case in the front hall for the display of children's work, the contents of this case should be frequently changed and a new display arranged tastefully and artistically. If the principal has kept in mind the necessity for making frequent changes, the matter will prey on his mind and divert his attention from other matters. Delegating this responsibility to a teacher will relieve him of any further worry.

This same teacher might be asked to assume the responsibility of supervising the care of the building in general, and the outside grounds in particular. If an upper-grade teacher is selected, much of this actual supervision might be further delegated to the pupils themselves. It is guaranteed that when the children have some share in governing there will be a noticeable improvement in the looks of the premises.

3. *Textbook distribution.* The place in which the principal can save the greatest amount of time is in the handling of textbooks. This is a job full of detailed irritations. Books are charged to Miss X at the beginning of the semester. She places them on a shelf in her room to be used by the children during a certain period of the day. She keeps no accurate check on the books and discovers that two of the set are missing only when it is time to return them to the storeroom. No one knows where they are. Much time is spent in tracking down the missing books. It is entirely likely that they will be discovered under an indiscriminate pile of forgotten papers in the back recesses of some pupil's desk. Cases have actually been reported where the missing books were taken home by children for further study in the subject! In any case it seems reasonable to suggest that the principal should not be spending his time tracking down missing

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books. A teacher, with the help of her own pupils, can easily assum this responsibility, together with the actual distribution of books an the keeping of records of where they are.

These are only a few of the many instances and areas that th principal can avoid if he chooses. All this minutiæ can be compe tently handled by other members of the staff, leaving the principa free to devote his time to the improvement of teaching. However, it is important to point out that this system of delegation will worl only if someone maintains control of the activities of the teacher to whom the responsibilities are delegated. It would be inadvisabl to propose that the teacher be given complete freedom to dispose o these tasks as she sees fit. The basic principles of delegation shoul be determined by all teachers, the broad outline of specific responsi bility set up, and the principal held responsible for the efficient dis patch of the tasks. His job remains that of supervisor and interprete of the individual teacher's area of responsibility.

4. *Assembly programs.* This is a type of responsibility that can b delegated to either a single teacher or to a small committee. If th school has regular programs, a certain standard form may be deter mined by the staff, with one person responsible for its execution. Her task would be that of filling in the details for each of the pro grams. For instance, the teachers may wish to set aside periods in which pupils present to the rest of the school the outgrowths of the classroom experiences. The regular pattern of the assembly might include the entering procedure, singing, announcements, color presentation and retiring, etc., with a definite period set aside for the presentation of the classroom program. The teacher respon sible for assembly programs would then assign individual teachers the dates they desired to present their programs, and help them with the necessary practical preparation.

If the faculty prefers the type of assembly program consisting mainly of outside speakers and special programs and presentations, it might be more humane to delegate that responsibility to a com-

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mittee. The task of making up such a schedule calls for a great deal of time, and many minds devoted to a single purpose will lighten the load for all. It goes without saying that the plans of either the individual or the committee should be submitted to the faculty for approval before being put in operation.

As in the case of individual delegation, the principal's main responsibility is over-all supervision and co-ordination. In the matter of assembly programs he will find much to keep him busy. While the teachers will work together with a certain degree of unanimity, it is inevitable that minor skirmishes will occur. Teacher A wants to put on her program on October 23 because that is when her children will be ready. But so will Teacher B be ready at that time. Who shall be awarded the date? The teacher in charge of scheduling is in no position to make a decision; whichever way she decides one teacher will be greatly aggrieved. It is here that the principal will need to step in and do what he can to help. He may not be able to dispose of the conflict any more effectively than the assembly teacher, but it is his responsibility to take the brunt of criticism rather than let the assembly teacher bear it.

COMMITTEE DELEGATIONS

There are many areas in school administration where a committee of teachers should be assigned. While all these phases might be administered by a single teacher—as they have been administered in the past by the single principal—they offer an excellent opportunity for teacher growth through co-operative activity. If the faculty is large, many teachers will find it difficult to participate actively in the larger group. The small committee assignment will provide opportunities for the less dynamic teacher to gain experiences with the co-operative method in a more restricted environment.

1. *The Safety Patrol.* Most schools have an organization of pupils devoted to making children more conscious of the need for safety in school and home play, care in crossing streets, the danger of certain

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kinds of play activities. Usually this is called the Safety Patrol. Police departments are becoming increasingly conscious of the value of this kind of pupil organization. If the principal takes full responsibility for the guidance of this activity he will find it will demand a large amount of his time. Meeting the children to make plans and programs will be only a minor drain on his time; the major job will be to control the actions of the children who are members of the Patrol. They will be in partial command of the conduct of other children. The resultant clashes and pupil difficulties require time to straighten out. A small teacher committee can adequately handle all these problems without bothering the principal. Each member of the committee can assume responsibility for part of the job, splitting up the task so that no one is unfairly burdened.

This will not release the principal from complete responsibility. There will be many occasions when the teachers on the committee will need guidance and practical help in working out the program. There will be times when they will run into conflict with other members of the staff. Ideally, the supervision of pupil conduct should rest entirely on the shoulders of all members of the staff. The presence of an organization of pupils that is supposed to do part of this job will sometimes be a signal for some teachers to renounce all care of children when not under their immediate care. This will place an undue amount of responsibility on the members of the teacher committee. In turn, the Safety Patrol members may assume more authority over other pupils' conduct than they can adequately discharge. The principal must see that the Safety Patrol makes a contribution to the betterment of pupil conduct, and does not set itself up as a rival organization to teacher authority.

2. *Audio-visual education program.* Visual education is a relatively new field in schools. Not too many teachers are conscious of its values, or informed about the ways by which visual aids may be used in teaching children. The principal may want to institute an educational program to make teachers more skillful in their use.

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But the mere mechanics of operating a visual-education program are very time consuming. If the principal is the only person in the school who can operate the different machines, the effectiveness of the program will be restricted by the amount of time he has available to devote to it. While the ideal is for every teacher to be competent to operate movie projectors, and have her classroom equipped with darkening facilities, such is not the actual case. A special room, equipped with the requisite equipment, is the rule. Unless the principal has teachers specially trained to operate projectors, he is nominated for the job.

In every school there are usually a few teachers who have more knowledge and skill in this direction than the average. These teachers might be interested in assuming the responsibility for promoting the program, not only in their own classrooms, but in helping other teachers in theirs. By forming a committee on the basis of mutual interest, they can offer a valuable service to others, take the burden from the principal, and provide themselves with experiences in co-operative endeavor. Nothing is lost in the venture, and the principal has again found a way of lightening his administrative load. The enthusiasm of this committee can infect the rest and further the program more effectively than can the principal.

3. *School publications.* The publication of a school paper offers another area in which teachers can operate effectively as a committee. The project calls for ability in many diverse areas, such as business management, editorializing, financial arrangements, etc. If the members of the committee are chosen with respect to their specialized interests and abilities, then co-ordinated under a competent chairman, the principal can be sure that the publishing of the paper will go forward without too much direction from him. He will need only to keep himself informed of the problems of the committee and offer his services whenever it is possible for him to make a contribution. The elimination of direct responsibility will relieve him of many hours of work.

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THE PROBLEMS OF DELEGATION

These are only some of the areas the principal can delegate to members of the staff. The faculty that decides to operate according to this policy should examine all areas of the administration of the school in order to decide where the members may legitimately take charge. It may appear to the reader that this might ultimately result in the principal having nothing at all to do, but we should like speedily to disabuse his mind of this conclusion. Teacher participation in administrative functions will solve many of the problems of the busy principal, but it will also create new ones. It would be unfortunate if the impression were gained that the techniques described were ideal answers to a puzzling set of problems.

1. *Need for constant guidance.* Although it is helpful to have the practical details of running the school shared by many people, it is sometimes difficult to keep the organization from becoming confusing and disparate in execution. The principal will discover that, while the physical burden of work has been lightened, the necessity for supervision and co-ordination has not diminished even a little. Teacher participation calls for an understanding of the functions and principles of good administration. These will have to be learned by the teachers through their experiences, and deliberately taught by the principal. This is a new burden that, in the beginning, may require as much time and effort as all the detailed tasks originally took.

Giving guidance to teacher-chairmen will further add to his responsibilities. Chairmaning a committee is a skill not everyone possesses. The tendency is for the chairman to assume all the obligations and allow the committee members only the dubious pleasure of confirming already committed acts. This is good for neither the chairman nor the committee members. The chairman is hurt because the members do not seem to take the same amount of interest in the

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special assignment. The members lose interest because they have nothing significant to do.

Chairmaning a committee requires the same degree of skill and adroitness called for in guiding the actions of the faculty as a whole. If the principal does not help by training teachers as chairmen, neither they nor the technique of committee action can be blamed for the possible subsequent failure. Growth in the ability to function effectively in an executive position will come through learning on the job. The principal should spend a major portion of his time helping others to assume their delegated obligations, whether it be that of chairman or committee member.

It is not uncommon for opponents of the above plan to argue that it is inefficient management to let someone else take charge of affairs which the principal can discharge more adequately. Many administrators operate on the policy that it is necessary to do things themselves if they expect to have them done well. Granting that principals are by nature administratively more competent than teachers does not absolve the point of view from being open to question. There are so many detailed jobs to be done it is not possible for one person, regardless of his competency, to cover the whole field with undiminished energy and dispatch. Somewhere along the line he is bound to let important matters slide in order to concentrate on the responsibility immediately before him.

For instance, assume that the principal is administering the entire program through his personal supervision and direction. He will be busy checking on the late-arrivers while several teachers are waiting to talk to him about their morning schedule. At the same time a parent calls to explain the reason for her child's recent absence, a teacher is waiting to get some needed supplies for her room, a child pulls the fire gong, another reports that the first-grade room is cold, the movie projector refuses to start, and the secretary is anxious to find out what work she should begin on. The term "bottleneck" can be appropriately applied to this not unnatural situation.

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Delegating the work to individuals will inevitably present some major problems in the beginning. Instead of being inundated with the execution of a hundred different tasks at the same time, the principal will be expected to keep his professional eye on the same hundred things to see that the person in charge disposes of them properly. At first, the substitution will appear no more preferable, but it is reasonable to expect that there will be a gradual reduction in early close supervision as the teachers become more competent. Over a period of time, he can become increasingly freer to devote his time to other important matters.

2. *The lack of interest of noncommittee members.* One of the most difficult problems is the tendency of those not involved in a special task to leave the work entirely to the committee. A group of teachers has been delegated the task of guiding the publication of the school paper. These committee members are enthusiastically dedicated to the job, spending boundless energy in helping children make the organ as outstanding as possible. So much of the detailed management is of a special nature that it never occurs to them to call on other teachers for assistance. The publications committee parcels out the various tasks to its members: one is in charge of finances, one on editorial policy, one on sales promotion, etc. The more expert and efficient they become, the less work noncommittee members of the faculty are expected to do. It does not take very long before the school paper becomes the exclusive property of the publications committee. If necessity demands that they seek the assistance of other teachers in securing articles for the paper, they are perplexed when enthusiastic compliance is not forthcoming. The other teachers are not being deliberately un-co-operative; they have had so little experience with the project that they feel little or no pride in association. Before this situation develops the principal must exercise discretion in getting committee members to see the necessity for not making their project a private affair. The extent to which the

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committee is capable of continuously finding work for other teachers will determine the success of committee activity.

3. *Conflicts in personality.* It will often be necessary for the principal to act as traffic policeman in order to keep committees from getting in each other's way. The chairman of the "housekeeping" committee is naturally interested in the best appearance of the school. The chairman of the "sales promotion" committee wants a candy and popcorn sale in the corridors. Any principal will recognize that a sale of this kind will result in a certain amount of disorder, and it does not take a clairvoyant to predict that these two chairmen will get involved in a heated debate over the relative values of sales versus a neat corridor. Or the visual-education committee will plan the use of the auditorium for showing a film at a time when the assembly committee will be planning a dress rehearsal for an assembly program. Both will insist that their program is more important, and that the other should give way gracefully.

These conflicts in purpose and program will call for intelligent and vigorous guidance by the principal. While he may not feel called upon to take sides and settle issues in terms of his own ideas and values, he should be expected to exercise his administrative ability in finding adequate solutions for the problems that arise.

In the case of the conflict between the cleanliness of the halls and the need for money-making affairs, the solution is not too difficult. The chairman of the sale may be expected to pay strict attention to keeping the corridors as neat as possible under the circumstances. When papers and wrappers get strewn over the floor one pupil could be held responsible for picking them up. But in the difficulty over the use of the auditorium the principal may have to make an arbitrary decision, giving the right of way to one group or the other on the basis of his best judgment. At the next faculty meeting a report of his decision should be given with a request for confirmation or a clearer definition of what policy ought to be followed in future cases.

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In general, the principal cannot delegate his final responsibility, although he can have a large share of the burden of execution removed. Instead of spending his time doing the jobs himself, the major portion of his time will be spent in supervision, in helping teachers to discharge their responsibilities more adequately. As teachers become more expert, even this duty progressively diminishes.

COMMITTEE PROBLEMS

1. *Co-ordination.* As a means of co-ordinating the work of various committees, the principal may wish to hold periodic meetings with the chairmen. At these meetings the chairmen and principal would discuss the common problems they are all facing. Conflicts that arise between committees could be ironed out at this time. It might even be possible to anticipate some of the future troubles and avoid them by intelligent planning. These meetings of chairmen should in no sense be intended to supplant the type of policy making that the staff as a whole does. If the teachers understand that the purpose is merely to *clarify* policy, and to plan means by which all committees can function without conflict, none of the basic authority will be taken from the whole group.

As a corollary function, the principal may find it helpful at times to act as spokesman for all committees when it is necessary to explain their work to the staff. While each chairman will want to make her own presentation, the principal is the only person in a position to view the work of all groups. This co-ordination and interpretation of committee activities by the principal will go a long way toward making committee work effective.

2. *Selection of committee members.* It is important that committee members be selected who are competent to discharge their responsibilities with a degree of success. Not every teacher can be a satisfactory member of a committee. Each special committee must have members who possess capacities that are essential to the work.

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Tasteful and artistic arrangement of a bulletin board calls for a teacher who is herself artistic; management of sales, contests, and campaigns requires a person with business ability. At the time of selection of committee personnel, it would be well for the principal to exercise some influence so that committee delegations are made to the right people. These assignments should be made in open meeting by the faculty as a whole only after the qualifications for each position have been determined.

It is not unusual for teachers to be tempted to delegate on the basis of personal friendships—or enmities, if the task is an unpleasant one—but it is clear that this will not work well. The principal must be capable of getting the group to make assignments on the basis of competence. In order to avoid the possibility of bad selection it may be that the principal, in the beginning, will want to make nominations for various posts after a great deal of thought has been given to his selections. This will amount to election at first, but if he has been careful in his choices, the teachers will respect his opinions. Later on, when the staff has achieved a greater degree of competence, this earlier technique can be abandoned.

3. *Committee organization in large faculties.* Up to this point we have been talking about the co-operation of teachers in faculties small enough to carry on their activities without too many complications as to size. When the number in a faculty meeting is greater than fifteen to twenty members, the size of the group presents problems of its own. The more timid members are further shrunken into their shells of silence; the more intrepid have a larger—if less appreciative—audience. The size of the group will also seriously hinder the speed with which the group may progress. The larger the group, the slower the progress. Then, too, a large number of people will have a greater variety of opinions and points of view. While divergence of opinion is to be desired, there is a limit to which the human soul can go.

Some of these obstacles can be avoided by the use of the committee

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technique in the construction of curriculum or the development of a philosophy of education. For example, while the division is artificial and not strongly recommended, the curriculum may be attacked in two broad areas: primary and intermediate grades. This will serve to break the faculty into half, making smaller groups, though increasing the dangers of schism. Or in the development of a philosophy of education, the philosophy itself may be broken down into component parts: the nature of society, the relation of the individuals in it, the ideal school, etc. Each of these separate groups will find it difficult to get their part done without knowledge of what others are doing, but this can be taken care of by frequent joint sessions.

If the faculty is large, such as fifty or sixty members, it may be necessary to break up subject matter into even smaller portions. Thus in curriculum development, committees might be organized around single grades, or on a subject basis. The latter organization would be agreeable only to those who believe in the subject-matter curriculum. Those believing in the integrated approach would choose to divide on the basis of grade levels.

4. *Making committee work meaningful to others.* In any attempt to meet a practical problem of size wisely, it should not be assumed that the resultant organization is necessarily the most desirable. There is no real substitute for the face-to-face relationship in solving problems co-operatively. The partial attack presents problems of its own with which the principal must be familiar.

For instance, suppose that a large faculty has decided to split into committees on the development of philosophy. One group has chosen to define what it considers an ideal concept of society, while the other group is determining the place of the school in that society. The major difficulty will be in trying to get both groups to appreciate the intellectual experiences of the other, without actually going through these experiences. Transmitting concrete knowledge is not always an easy matter; it becomes well-nigh hopeless when the ma-

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terial is as abstract as philosophy. While both smaller groups, because of size, can progress much more rapidly than the larger group could hope to do, the problem of synthesis of the two groups' conclusions will often wreck the good work done independently and rapidly.

An example of this difficulty may help to clarify the point. In one faculty group, a committee of teachers had been selected to make a study of the processes and techniques in elementary-school evaluation. The committee members spent a great deal of time studying the subject. They investigated all the experiments that had been conducted, had consulted with leading authorities in the field, and had instituted some unique and forward-looking experiments of their own. As a result of this rich mass of experiences they recommended strongly some major changes in the type of evaluation then in use in the school.

The teachers who had not had the experience of fruitful research were unimpressed by the report. They were willing to admit that the present practices were unsatisfactory and that a change was indicated, but they drew the line on such radical reconstruction suggested by the committee. The committee members were at a loss to understand how the other teachers could be so stupid; to them the evidence was crystal clear. But they had neglected to take into account their rich experiences in achieving their present point of view. The rest of the staff had no means of filling the gap between where the committee members had progressed and their own point of view. The principal had a major task of trying to provide a bridge between the committee and the rest of the faculty. Semantics, in this case, was not a problem. The faculty members were well informed of what was being said to them. They were unable to appreciate the *importance* of what was being said because they lacked the requisite set of basic experiences.

So far as we can see, there seems to be no way to avoid this drawback to committee work; it seems to permeate the work of every

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type of committee. Administrative committees find the least difficulty in transmitting their experiences to the group. Their experiences are likely to be common to all teachers, as well as being on a more concrete level. But when the committee is constituted for the purpose of working on some abstract or philosophical phase of the faculty's business the problem becomes sharp.

THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY

Experience shows that the principal can be of assistance to the committee and to the faculty in helping transmit experiences to others. Periodic and frequent reports will help keep everyone better informed. The principal can recommend that committee chairmen present their material in as concrete and objective a form as possible. For instance, the committee on evaluation could have planned to guide other teachers through a series of evaluative experiences, and thus help them to appreciate the values of their recommendations through actual contact with the subject. Words alone are poor vehicles for the transmission of ideas; practical experiences will nearly always prove to be more helpful.

Throughout the entire activity of teacher participation in committee work, whether it be administrative or educational policy making, the principal's main contribution is co-ordination. When the policies have been formulated and the practical plans set in motion, his special task is the delicate one of keeping all committees working harmoniously toward a common goal. The extent to which he can skillfully guide and counsel individuals and committees in making an integrated contribution to the broad policies of the staff will determine almost entirely the success of the plan.

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CHAPTER VIII

The Principal as Plant and Office Manager

MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL'S BUSINESS

WHILE the main purpose of school is to provide a rich environment in which children may learn, the provision of this environment is often a big-business proposition. One of the principal's responsibilities is a knowledge of business organization and method. Hundreds of millions of dollars each year are spent for public education. The public expects this money to be spent with intelligent efficiency. Without some skill in management, without the employment of some of the basic principles of business, this expectation may not be realized.

Any good business requires the services of a manager. This person must be able to co-ordinate and control practical affairs so the physical plant and the machinery for running it operate in the interests of the purposes of the organization. In school the purposes are educational; thus the manager must guide the business activities toward that end. This is a big job, the discussion of which goes beyond the scope of this book. The reader is referred to the several sources listed in the bibliography where this matter is adequately presented (33, 70, 73, 74, 95, 108). Since we are concerned primarily with human relations, no attempt will be made to discuss the more detailed aspects of the problem.

THE SCHOOL BUDGET

Since the amount of money allotted to the single school will set the limits of what may be done with it, the first task will be to

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determine how much is available. In the majority of school systems this will be determined by the central office. However, it is often possible for the individual school to determine the specific details of its expenditure. The central office may allot a sum of money based on enrollment. The faculty then has the opportunity of determining how it shall be spent. The particular budgetary system used locally will determine the degree to which the following suggestions will apply.

If the school is free to determine how it shall spend its money for school supplies, textbooks, and other educational equipment, this determination should rest with the faculty as a whole. General financial policy must be worked out as soon as the amount of money available is known. Problems of securing catalogues with prices, obtaining knowledge of where materials may be bought, and actually doing the purchasing, must be worked out. Teachers need help in recognizing that spending money is not a matter of ordering all the things they see until the money has been exhausted, but requires a careful budgeting so that it may be spread to include the most important items first. If the principal were to make these decisions on his own best judgment, he might conceivably spend the money more economically, but his determination of what was most important would not coincide with that of the teachers. The importance and desirability of educational supplies and equipment should be determined by the staff, after which the principal can then act intelligently on the basis of group values. The faculty must learn to act as a board of directors controlling the funds of a corporation, with the principal acting as chairman of the board or president of the company.

PLANT MANAGEMENT

Spending money is only one area in which business skill is important. The total operation of the school plant calls for a great deal of skilled direction. The plant has a direct relationship to the

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purposes of the school. Only after the *educational* purposes are known and clearly defined will it be possible to govern the management of the school in terms of them.

This simple fact is often lost sight of by both school personnel and the general public. Too often the purposes of the school are ignored. The general public is inordinately proud of its school buildings. It will often place appearance above utility. Boards of Education will resist efforts to make the school building widely available for community activities on the grounds that they will destroy its surface appearance. Nails in well-polished floors, sticky tape on freshly painted walls, playgrounds on landscaped areas, are all equally frowned on regardless of their educational values. It is no wonder that teachers frequently reflect these community values in their dealings with children in school.

Perhaps the first and most important responsibility of the principal is to champion the cause of children's education in the face of these traditional biases. As manager of the school plant he must help teachers to use the building in whatever ways necessary for their educational development. Normal wear and deterioration are inevitable.

In the actual operation of the plant the principal will probably not be specially trained in the intricacies of heating, ventilation, lighting, and cleaning. It is assumed that the janitor, custodian, or fireman will possess all the necessary knowledge and skill for effective operation. The principal will need to exercise some supervisory control of these activities, but his services are nominal. However, when these custodial duties come in conflict with the educational program of the school, he will need to play an important role.

1. *Pupil discipline and the custodian.* Disciplining children by the custodian has become an all too common practice. It develops from the natural concern the custodian has for his building. It usually starts with an attempt to control children's proclivities for marking up the lavatory walls, defacing sidewalks, and generally showing too

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little regard for the custodian's special pride—the appearance of the building. All principals are sympathetic with the custodian's desire to control and limit these activities, but the custodian is the last person who should have authority or privilege to exercise control over children. It is objectionable for two reasons: he is unskilled in the proper methods of disciplining children, and it interferes with a relationship between children and custodian that ought to exist.

It is indefensible to grant disciplinary authority to one who is so poorly qualified. Control of children's behavior is a difficult and perplexing business. An immense amount of understanding and skill are involved. The custodian is almost sure to use a type of control that is based on fear and intimidation. Since it has been amply demonstrated that this results in outward acquiescence only, the custodian will spend a considerable amount of time playing detective. It seems clear that the guidance of children's behavior is an educational responsibility to be reserved to those professionally trained. The principal, if he encounters custodial interference, will perform a major service to both children and the staff if he insists on the custodian tending to his own business and leaving control of the children to the teachers.

Also there are innumerable occasions when the custodian can be of great assistance to the pupils and teacher in the promotion of their educational activities. A first-grade group may be interested in building a house as a part of their major educational unit. The children cannot be expected to build the basic structure without its falling about their heads, and the teacher is usually not skilled in carpentry. If the help of the custodian is desired it is important that a good working relationship be effected.

2. *Overprotection of school property.* Collateral with the custodian's attempts to dominate the lives and action of children will be his desire to protect the use of the school plant from what he may deem unwarranted misuse. For him the main purpose of the building is to look nice. He will not be concerned about the educational

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activities of children as such. If children wish to display their work on the walls, he will be greatly aggrieved by their use of thumbtacks or scotch tape. Floor models that require the use of nails driven into the floor will be considered a defilement of sacred property. In these and many other instances, it will be necessary for the principal to decide between protection of the property and the promotion of worthwhile activities. Teachers should not be expected to engage in eternal combat with the custodian in their efforts to make the physical environment serve the interests of children.

3. *Janitorial supplies.* Some of the principal's time will be devoted to assisting the custodian in selecting and purchasing needed equipment. As manager of the school plant he will want to help plan for efficient disbursement of the funds allotted to this service. If the custodian is to spend the major portion of his time attending to the care of the building he should not be expected to devote too much time to the more routine matters of ordering and purchasing supplies and equipment. The principal's office should be as much a service agency to the custodian as it is to the teachers.

4. *Teacher-custodian relations.* The major responsibility of the principal as manager is that of arranging for and encouraging the best working relationships between the teaching staff and the custodian. It is a matter of common knowledge that teachers find it difficult to get along with custodians, and vice versa. At times teachers feel that they must resist his attempts to dominate their lives; at times they are compelled to cajole him into performing what he may consider special services. He, in turn, will wonder if it is possible for mortal man to please everybody. One teacher wants her classroom warmer than the usual temperature. Another wants her windows cleaned more often. A third would like to have a special bulletin board made; she demands that he stop whatever he is doing and make her some shelves for the new books she has just received. These appeals for special dispensation constantly plague the custodian. He recognizes that if he grants favors to one teacher

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it will open the flood gates of personal demands that will swamp him. If he attempts to set up his own principles to determine what he shall do, he can be sure to earn the displeasure of many, and the reputation of being cantankerous.

This is an important matter of human relations that comes in the province of the principal as manager of the school plant. It is vitally important that the operation of the school be subservient to the needs and activities of children. Proper professional relationships between teachers and custodian will make it possible. This is not simply a matter of acting as peace-maker between two warring factions, but more the construction of a working agreement that will be acceptable to both custodian and teachers.

As a guide to determine his actions the principal will need to refer constantly to the teachers in staff meeting. The educational needs of the teachers will largely determine the work of the custodian. The matter of special requests for custodial service should be fully discussed and a general principle of action established in open meeting. A distinction between defensible requests and those based on unreasonable personal demands will need to be agreed upon. When the issues are made clear by the teachers, the principal will have a basis for judgment to guide his work with the custodian.

5. *The custodian as a faculty member.* There are times when the problem of custodial relations is of such importance that it would be wise to invite the custodian to attend the faculty meetings, in order to plan co-operatively on the best method of procedure. The principal and custodian may have been working hard to combat a wave of destruction in the boys' lavatory. Obscene writing appears regularly on the walls, some of it scratched in deeply with a penknife. While this is primarily a problem of management of the plant, its educational implications are obvious. It may be only one aspect of a general tendency confronting teachers in the classroom. Satisfactory solution of both the classroom and the lavatory problem

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may be enhanced by all concerned planning together on a united attack.

Acceptance of the custodian as a recognized member of the staff would go a long way toward solving the conflict between classroom teaching and plant management. There are many occasions when the custodian can be of assistance in the development of the classroom program. If he had a more intimate understanding of the purposes and procedures in education he could conduct his work in a more intelligent manner. While his contributions to the development of educational policy might be few and insignificant, the spirit of co-operation and the sense of belonging would create an atmosphere that would reduce or eliminate many of the conflicts that are now the common lot of teachers and custodians.

THE SCHOOL OFFICE

1. *Clerical responsibilities.* The clerical responsibilities of a school are manifold and detailed. State support of education makes it necessary to keep accurate accounts of attendance. The superintendent's office has need for many different kinds of reports from teachers: certification data, enrollment statistics, and the like. The principal's office must keep an up-to-date file of data about the children in the school. The teacher herself has many records to keep of children's work: test records, medical reports, daily class work.

In the past the question has seldom been raised concerning who should keep these records. It has been tacitly assumed that this was the teacher's job, with the principal acting as overseer. This assumption may be successfully challenged. Teachers should be freed from the onerous task of bookkeeping wherever possible. It makes more sense to employ a person in the principal's office solely responsible for this service, so that teacher energies may be released for the creative job of guiding the development of children.

Although it is not likely, in the foreseeable future, that public-

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school administrators will grant the validity of this proposal, much may be done to reduce the load on individual teachers. A comprehensive survey of the clerical responsibilities now discharged by teachers may reveal many ways in which the work may be lightened. Every demand should be examined in the light of its relative necessity. All duplications and unnecessary details can be eliminated. A concerted faculty attack on this problem may yield rich results in released time and energy.

2. *Schedule making.* Every school must establish certain schedules for the control of such materials and space as the gym, auditorium, music room, visual education equipment, textbooks, supplies, etc. After the teachers have determined the ways by which they desire these to be handled, the office can take the responsibility of setting up the actual schedules. One school worked out the program for the use of the gym by requesting the office to make up a blank schedule on which each teacher could write the time she desired. When the master copy of the schedule had been finally approved by all teachers, it was duplicated so that each teacher could have a copy for constant reference. Even such seemingly minor matters as this should be controlled by the entire staff, on the assumption that it makes a great deal of difference to the individual teacher. It is impossible for the principal or his office to determine the special needs and desires of teachers. Common sense suggests that the solution lies in teachers making up their own schedules, with the office acting as a service agency.

3. *Supply ordering.* In connection with the discussion concerning financial management the matter of purchasing supplies and textbooks was brought up. The school office naturally assumes the responsibility for the clerical task of making up supply orders and doing the actual purchasing. As a matter of fact, it would be ridiculous to handle the matter in any other way. Each teacher determines her own needs, all of which are sent to the office and compiled as a

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total list of needs for the school. This compilation is then examined by the staff to determine whether the total is within the limits set for such expenditures. Any cuts in amounts or kinds of material is co-operatively agreed upon by all teachers. The approved revised list is then sent to the office for ordering. When the materials arrive at the school, the office is expected to reverse the process by using the agreed-upon distribution system for delivering the goods to the individual teachers. In this way the office acts as a central collecting and distributing agency.

4. Testing programs. At various times the teachers may wish to make school-wide surveys of the educational progress of the children. They may wish to ascertain to what extent their efforts are achieving the desired results. There is some merit to the idea that a faculty should take time periodically to make specific measurement of their attainment with pupils, provided the decision is made by the staff and the program determined and controlled by them. Any other procedure would defeat the purpose of group control.

Once the teachers have agreed upon the kind of testing program they desire, and have selected the tests appropriate to their purposes, the actual task of ordering and distributing the tests can be handled by the office. All the details of their distribution, administration, and tabulation of results could be assumed. There is a difference of opinion with respect to who should do the correcting of test results. The argument in favor of the teachers doing their own correcting, in spite of the fact that the job is time consuming and arduous, is that the teacher will be better informed concerning the specific development of each child. The argument in favor of the office taking care of the whole task of correction is that teachers need not know in such minute detail what their children are doing, provided the office makes an accurate and clear analysis of the results. The latter argument appears to have more weight when it is remembered that this is a *survey* test. The main purpose is to get a general overview of the

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work of the school as a whole. In diagnostic testing the former argument seems to be more valid. In any case, there is much the office can do to help the teacher perform her tasks with a minimum of clerical labor.

5. *Duplication of teacher-made materials.* Today there is a rapidly growing discontent with the idea that maximum effectiveness in guiding children can be achieved through the use of textbooks as the sole basis for presenting subject matter. Even the most ardent advocates of formal learning are willing to concur that the best textbooks need much supplementation and individual adaptation. Modern school techniques include the use of teacher-made materials, materials that are made specifically for an actual group of children, based on their present needs. In the past, teachers have spent considerable time making their own practice materials. It would appear that this service might better be offered by the office. The purchase of a relatively inexpensive duplicating machine could be made without too heavy a drain on the school's funds. If the budget would not allow it, the staff could produce an entertainment the proceeds of which could be used to buy the duplicating machine. It should be remembered, however, that if the office is to take on this added responsibility, it cannot be properly discharged without the services of a clerk.

6. *Public relations.* Desirable publicity programs to acquaint the community with the work of the school provide another area in which the office can help. Copy of newspaper releases, brochures depicting the work of the school, notices sent home with children announcing school functions, invitations to parents and patrons to visit the school, all are ways by which the office can lighten the burden of the teacher. It is not too much to expect the office to make telephone calls to parents to arrange for conferences with teachers. Whenever the school needs to communicate with the outside world the school office should supply the technical facilities.

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THE SCHOOL SECRETARY

The above list of responsibilities of the school office is not exhaustive, but has been made to show the wide variety of methods by which the classroom teacher may be freed from many of the customary details of schoolteaching. If the office is staffed with a full-time person to handle these activities, it will be important for the principal to work closely with her to see that she understands her functions.

In cases where this newer policy of service is adopted without changing the personnel of the office, the clerk may find it difficult to readjust her thinking to the new way of acting. She will not take kindly to the idea that she must be at the beck and call of "fussy old schoolteachers," each of whom wants something different, and worse, wants it right now. It will tax the patience of the most adaptable personality to fill the bill adequately. At best, it is a difficult job to please a widely divergent group of people. Unless the clerk can learn to gain satisfaction from serving the needs of others, she is not likely to be happy in this situation. The principal may have a real job cut out for him in helping the clerk meet her obligations satisfactorily. He must make it clear that the office, the principal, and the secretary are all service agencies for the teachers. All will need to measure success in terms of ability to provide this service. Success in developing co-operative relations, both within the office and with the teachers, will be a major purpose of the principal as manager.

In addition to serving the needs of teachers the office clerk will have many other jobs, such as taking dictation, typing, filling out blanks with information requested by the superintendent, keeping a file system of vital statistics, answering and making telephone calls, meeting parents and arranging for conferences. She will also be expected to serve as the principal's private secretary. In this multiple capacity there may be a confusion of functions which will be puzzling

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to teachers. They will not always know when they are dealing with the office clerk, from whom they may expect service, and when with the principal's secretary, who is making a request of them to produce certain materials requested by the superintendent. Because the authoritative function of the clerk-secretary is more likely to be visible, there is danger that the teachers will fall into the habit of deferring to her wishes. It takes a person of unusual capacity to be able to keep these functions distinctly separated in her own mind, let alone behaving in such a way that the distinction is understandable to teachers.

The principal must be particularly adept in helping the office assistant to see her position clearly. There may be many occasions when he will need to explain carefully and patiently just where her authority extends. If any error must be made, preference should be given to her service responsibilities. There are many other ways by which the principal can obtain the needed information than through the clerk. If misunderstanding of the service function results from the mixture, he might better use these alternatives.

The main problem will probably arise over the initial employment of a person who can serve in the dual capacity of service agent and assistant to the principal. There is a great deal more prestige attached to the latter. The individual chosen may prefer to consider herself responsible only to the principal, and will therefore slight her duty to the teachers wherever possible. The principal will need to guard against this tendency. Carelessness in this respect will defeat the primary purpose of the school office as a service agency to the teachers. Again, he will find that constant reference to the faculty will give him the guidance he will need in determining where he shall exert his influence. In the last analysis, if a choice must be made, his purely administrative requirements of the clerk-secretary should be subordinated to the needs of teachers. It will make considerable difference whether a teacher gets her duplicated materials when she

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needs them. It makes much less difference whether the principal gets his letters dictated at the exact moment he desires them.

SUMMARY

In all of these office responsibilities it will be necessary to keep clearly in mind that the keynote is "service." Except for those situations which will be discussed in the following chapter, the school office exists for teachers. The heart of the educational program is in the classroom, in the relation and activities of teacher and pupils. All other agencies are subservient to this main objective. If the principal keeps this thought uppermost in his mind he will have the kind of guidance he needs to determine the exact functions of the office and office personnel, including himself. As manager of the school office it will be up to him to determine the quality of the service offered.

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CHAPTER IX

The Principal as Executive of the Superintendent

REGARDLESS of the desirability of a faculty being free to make its own decisions, such freedom is a theoretical ideal. Actually, teachers operate in a legal and physical environment which places many restrictions on their individual and group freedom.

The task of educating children is a state responsibility, largely delegated to the local community, which is expected to set up its own controls within the framework determined by state legislation. The local community, in turn, adds to the state requirements those prescriptions and limitations on teachers which it considers defensible and desirable. It is within this double constriction of free dom that the teaching staff must learn to operate. The building principal has an important and difficult task of helping teachers to understand these limitations, and to find ways of serving children within the framework given them.

Most authorities on school administration have graphically represented the legal relations among the various units in education by the simplified diagram presented on page 161.

Since education is a state responsibility, the representatives of all people in the state, the legislature, have set up certain requirements and standards which are desirable for all. Such items as the length of the school day and year, proper certification of teachers, minimum standards of health and safety, compulsory attendance laws, and certain financial requirements, are usually determined for all schools alike. While conditions vary considerably with regard to the amount of control of curricular content, most states have something to say

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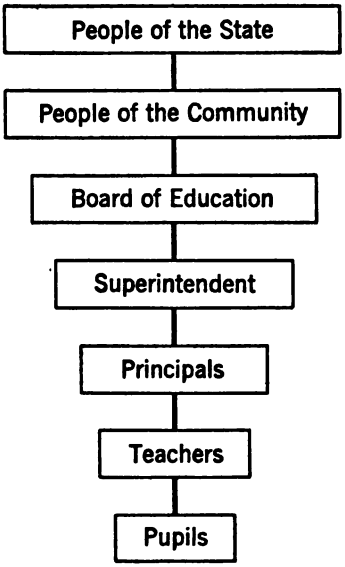
about what shall be taught. It is common practice, however, for states to delegate some of these important decisions to the local community.

The responsibilities of the local community are discharged through a legally elected Board of Education, School Board, or School Committee. This body is responsible for determining what



shall be taught in the schools, and under what conditions. Since the Board of Education is technically unskilled to do this, it elects a professionally trained person to carry out its policy. In turn, the superintendent, if he administers a system of more than one school, will select local administrators to execute the state and local policies in the individual school. Teachers have delegated to them those tasks for which they are technically trained. Pupils are the recipients of the programs determined from above.

This organization for education has operated in American communities with enough success to escape major criticism. Few educa-

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tors or laymen have proposed any serious reorganization, partly because it works fairly well, and partly because it has attained a certain amount of traditional respect. No criticism of local autonomy is here offered; neither is the basic structure of state legislation under attack. Our purpose is to survey the present status so that whatever changes are suggested will be made within the framework already in effect. If the thesis of this book is to have any promise of success, it must be based on the assumption that it will work within the structure as it is now organized.

LIMITATIONS ON THE PRINCIPAL'S FREEDOM

In order that we clearly see the nature of the limitations which this structure places on local principals, it may be helpful to describe these restrictions in detail. Understanding of the legal environment is fundamentally important to the principal who wishes to encourage and promote faculty initiative.

1. *State limitations.* A state may decide, as many have, that a school day must be at least four hours in duration in order to be called a full day. The local faculty, in its desire to promote the most desirable environment for children in the first grade, may wish to decide that it would be physically and psychologically better if the day were only three hours long. However desirable this might be for children, the decision goes beyond the freedom of the teachers to decide. The principal will be compelled, under such circumstances, to call attention to the fact that teachers must make their decisions in conformity with the law.

Again, a kindergarten teacher may wish to try her hand in a fourth grade. Both the teacher and the principal may be convinced that she will do a better job with older children, and that the shift in assignment is desirable from every point of view. But if the teacher has only a kindergarten-primary certificate, which entitles her to teach up to and including the third grade, freedom to make the desired change is prohibited by law.

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These are only a couple of examples of how the local faculty is controlled by authority over which they have no immediate control. Both the superintendent and the principal are compelled by law to execute the mandates of the state in these and other matters. The principal will find that he must occasionally remind teachers that there are limitations set by the state which determine their freedom to make decisions.

2. *Local limitations.* Within the limits set by the state, the local Board of Education will undoubtedly establish certain prescriptions which it deems advisable. Teaching certificates must be placed on file in the Board offices, attendance records kept, financial statements made of expenditures, bus schedules arranged to the satisfaction of the state, a complete bookkeeping system devised for the control of local expenses. The administrators are responsible for the execution of these local tasks.

The Board of Education may also decide to place certain personal restrictions on the conduct of teachers. The general public still expects teachers to comport themselves with decorum. Smoking in public may be considered an act which merits dismissal. The employment of married women teachers may be prohibited. Regardless of the intelligence displayed by Board members in placing such narrow interpretations on the personal life of teachers, and in spite of the extent to which principal and teachers may object to these limitations as unnecessarily shortsighted and illiberal, they constitute the boundaries beyond which the teachers are not free to stray.

Perhaps the greatest difficulty will arise when the narrow restrictions of the Board of Education directly conflict with the best interests of children. Most teachers have the natural inclination to get married. But the local Board may have an explicit rule forbidding the continued employment of married persons. The local faculty may be strong in its desire to keep the services of a valued member of the staff. The scarcity of available and competent substitutes is such

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that the resignation of the present teacher would reduce the efficiency of the school's program.

It is in a situation such as this that the principal will find it difficult to remember his role as executive of the superintendent and representative of the authority of the Board of Education. Appeal to the proper authorities to make special concessions may be the only alternative open. However, if such appeal should fail, regardless of how much it may pain the principal to execute the will of the Board, he has no alternative. It is vitally important that he make this position clear to the faculty, preferably before such a situation arises. Without knowledge of the source of such authority, the teachers' faith in his interest in their welfare may be seriously affected.

3. *Limitations of the superintendent.* In addition to the limitations imposed by state and local legislation, the superintendent may have further policies and programs representing restrictions on the local faculty. Not only is he expected to administer the more businesslike aspects of the Board, such as maintenance and management of the buildings, organization and direction of transportation, ordering materials and equipment for the schools, etc., but he is also expected to set up an educational program and determine its content and development. He may decide that all children should use the same textbooks, have access to the same instructional materials, and carry on their learning activities according to the same general subject-matter plan. In accordance with this policy he will determine what teachers shall teach, how they shall teach it, and under what conditions. He may elect to control the product of this uniform educational plan through standardized tests, from the results of which he will evaluate the effectiveness of the individual teacher. Daily lesson plans may have to be submitted to him periodically for analysis. Deviations from his detailed notions of what constitutes an appropriate plan may be dealt with severely.

Under the above circumstances it is difficult to see what is left for the building faculty with respect to making policies and programs

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for children. Perhaps the simplest solution is for all to find positions where greater latitude is granted. The point of this discussion is not whether complete arrogation of authority to make curriculum plans is wise or unwise, but that the superintendent has the legal right to do so. When such is the case the principal must understand that this places a strict limitation on the freedom of the faculty.

Most superintendents have recognized the wisdom of giving faculties increasingly more freedom to determine their own programs. As the area of freedom is expanded, the principal must be alert to the possibilities of using it intelligently. If a small step is taken by the superintendent in permitting teachers some discretionary powers, the principal must be careful not to interpret this as full and complete freedom to initiate a radically different program. Each gain should be solidified, each new permission treated carefully and prayerfully.

It may appear from the above that we are assuming that all superintendents are shortsighted, intolerant, and dictatorial administrators. That such is not the case may be attested by the recent evidence to the contrary. The American Association of School Administrators, made up of the more professionally minded school superintendents, has often declared the necessity of administrators providing teachers with an ever-widening opportunity to participate in the formation of school policy. However, statistics show that the practices of a large proportion of administrators will follow the older tradition of arbitrary imposition. It would be unfortunate if we were to ignore this fact and not take it into account in our attempt to clarify the limitations placed on the local staff.

The first step in understanding the limitations placed on the staff's freedom is to encourage a study of those which specifically apply to the local situation. Just what does the state and local Board of Education expect? What does the Board say about the conduct of teachers? To what extent do the curriculum prescriptions of the superintendent narrow the choices that teachers are free to make?

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Throughout this investigation the principal should make clear that, as legal representative of the superintendent, it is his responsibility to enforce whatever regulations are enacted. If these limitations totally proscribe all freedom the proposals in this book would be inoperable.

4. *Limitations due to the dual role played by the principal.* The principal will not find it easy to act in a Jekyll and Hyde character. At one moment he will be expected to serve the interests of the superintendent; at the same time he will be expected to contribute to teach growth through his capacity as executive of faculty decisions.

An example may help to clarify the problem. The teachers of a certain school had spent a considerable amount of time and thought on the problem of beginning reading. They had learned that if one is to consider the fact of individual differences in rates of mental maturity, it would be necessary to adapt their instruction to take that fact into account. They learned that reading experts recommend that children have a mental age of at least six and one half years before formal instruction in book work is begun. Knowing that mental maturity is only partly determined by chronological age, the teachers decided that they should not teach all children of the same age the same difficulty level in reading.

From this analysis they came to the conclusion that: (1) reading for all children might profitably be delayed until the second half of the first grade; (2) the brighter children could be expected to begin their reading earlier than this, but the duller would need an even longer period of reading-readiness experiences; (3) at the end of the year the children, as a group, would be spread out in reading ability much more than is normally true; and (4) this would mean that the first-grade teacher would not be able to determine fitness for second grade on the basis of *average* success in reading.

The fourth conclusion was one that gave the teachers a great deal of concern. If they accepted a different basis on which to promote

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children from that previously used, it would be unfair to continue to judge the work on the old basis. Children ought not to be penalized for the failure to do something the teacher never intended them to do. If the slower group is not given added intensive instruction they could normally be expected to achieve lower levels of success than those who were average or better. Promotion policies should be a direct product of what teachers considered important to do.

Unfortunately for this staff of teachers, they were working in a school system in which the superintendent had determined promotion policies in terms of what *he* considered important. He was convinced that unless first-grade teachers devoted the predominant share of their time to teaching reading, and especially to teaching reading to the slowest third of the class, children would not be ready to carry on successfully the quality of work expected of them in the later grades. To this end he had instituted a testing program in reading achievement to come at the end of the first grade. All children who failed to get a score on this test representing not more than four months' retardation were to be retained in first grade for an additional year.

This is not an unusual dilemma for first-grade teachers to face. Since the inception of our graded school system we have been plagued by our seeming inability to do the impossible—getting all children to go through the same patterns of subject-matter experiences and coming out with reasonably similar results. The teachers in this school had been encouraged by the principal to face the reality of the situation and to devise some solution which would promise greater success. Throughout the discussions and study he had acted as educational leader, facilitating discussion, bringing out the contributions of individual members, assisting in the accumulation of data, and helping to summarize conclusions. Now the staff had a set of conclusions which ran counter to the accepted practices of the system.

It was no easy matter to draw a fine line of distinction between the principal as educational leader and as executive of the superin-

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tendent. As leader the principal had encouraged the teachers to draw conclusions which the principal as executive could not permit to be put in operation. The testing program was an affair over which he had no control. As executive of the superintendent it was his responsibility for administering this phase of the system's program.

This situation does not necessarily need to present a complete impasse. It is difficult to imagine a superintendent who, when presented with the facts of a case, is not willing to make modifications in his decisions. If he can be shown that his expectations of teachers go beyond the limits of possibility it is fair to assume that he will revise his demands. The principal who leads his teachers through a study of a school problem and consistently sticks to the facts will have contributed a major service, not only to teachers, but to the system as a whole. The example cited, however, is not given to show the possibility of making changes in school practice, but to point out that in the process the principal must tread gingerly in his dual capacity of leader and school executive. Until the limits of freedom have been pushed back by the incontestable facts, the principal and faculty must operate within the restricted area.

A Suggested Reorganization of School Administration

It is clear that a major change in the principles of school administration, from the top down, is indicated if we wish to find a sensible solution to the problem of what to do about the conflict between what we know is good for children and the educational organization we have inherited for the stated purpose of serving this "good." Part of the solution lies in an analysis of responsibility portrayed by the diagram given at the beginning of the chapter. If any real progress is to be made, it might be well to reconsider the adequacy of this concept of good school administration. The principal who is desirous of instituting a program described in these pages might well begin by insisting that it is not necessary to assume that the present "line and staff" organization is either mandatory or desirable. We should

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like to propose a new way of looking at school organization that promises greater rewards for both children and the teaching personnel.

In the past twenty-five years a great deal of knowledge has accrued concerning the way children learn, their needs and interests, the developmental patterns of growth, and the guides we may use in determining successful development (2, 18, 47, 48). Possession of this knowledge has led some educators to propose that the school program be based solely on these facts. In direct conflict with this proposal is the long tradition on which public education is built—passing on the great heritage of the past. The battle has been waged long and vigorously, with the victory going first to one side then the other. Proponents of "child-centered" schools and those of the "subject-matter-centered" schools may be equally guilty of avoiding an obvious solution—that the school must be *both*. Since the heritage of the past and the hopes of the future reside in the accumulated traditions, customs, preferences, ideals, organizations, etc., of the community, and since the children are an indivisible part of this community, the subject matter of the traditionalists may best be learned in its functional setting. Schools, then, will best serve the society of which they are a part by being an integral part of their own parent body, thus creating a "community-centered" school. The needs and interests of the children typically emerge from and are influenced by this community. Both traditions *and* children can best be served by focusing attention upon a curriculum which is directly related to the life children are leading in their daily contacts (106).

All this as preface to the point that any organization for the school is best represented by a diagram which includes *both* the people of a community and the children of that community. The present concept of school organization may be criticized for ignoring one main purpose for which the schools were created—the needs and interests of children. Unless we include what we know about children in gen-

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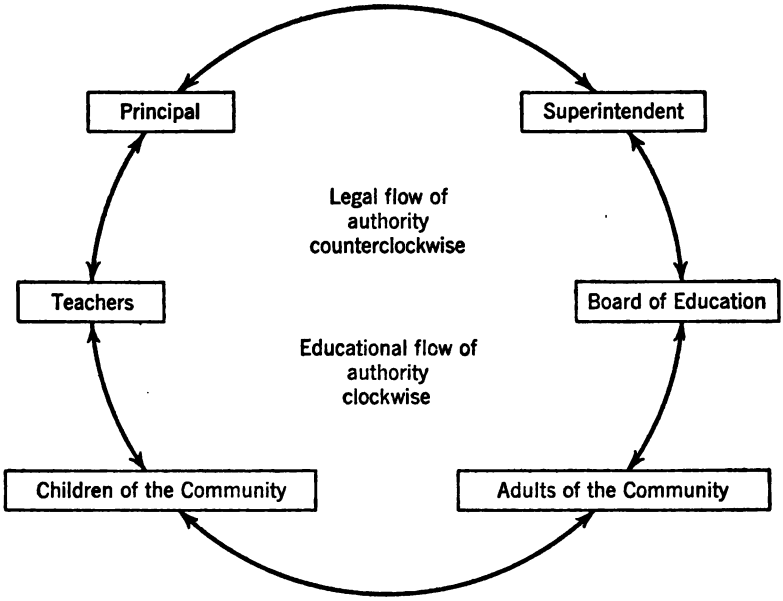
eral, and the children of a specific community in particular, any plans we make are likely to be only accidentally good for them. The diagram below presents the dual responsibility of the school simply and pointedly:



The reader will notice that the customary diagram for the organization of the schools is fully represented in the new proposal. The people of a community continue to enjoy their legal right to elect a Board of Education, which in turn appoints a chief executive, who chooses principals and teachers, who instruct children. But from this point on, the diagram represents other lines of influence that are just as potent in the shaping of educational aims and plans. The arrowheads, it will be noticed, point in *both* directions, indicating a line of authority which is all too often ignored. Boards of Education, in reality, *do* influence the people, and Boards of Education are influenced by the superintendent. An examination of any functioning

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school system will reveal the truth of this statement. In fact, in practice it may be found that superintendents influence Boards and Boards influence people, rather than the reverse.

It is suggested that we consider a school system as consisting of a double flow of authority, each interacting with the other. The interaction between the people of the community and the Board of Education has already been pointed out. The interaction between the Board of Education and the superintendent is equally obvious. But in most school situations desirable interaction ends here. From this point on the flow of authority is a one-way road: to principal, teacher, and children.

If education is to be founded on the double responsibility to community and children, both should be represented as the base. But it is equally important that we recognize the positive and potent interaction between these two bases for the school program. The people, through their organized ways of living and working together, and in their more unorganized ways of thinking together, exert powerful influences on the children, shaping them into the kinds of people they are and are likely to be. In turn, the children are the apples of their parents' eyes, and represent the hopes and aspirations of the adults. Their needs, interests, drives, are those of the parents, and must be met in order to fulfill the desires of the parents. Thus children's problems are essentially the problems of adults as they are portrayed in children. Only one of these problems is the formal education of children in school. We must fully consider this interactive character of human relations outside the school if we are to construct a program which will adequately meet both the needs of children and the desires of parents.

It may be helpful to follow the arrow in the diagram through one full circle, first going one way then the other, in order to study the interactive relationships that actually do exist in the school. Following the line counterclockwise results in a description of school administration with which we are all familiar; following the circle in

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the other direction reveals some relationships and responsibilities that are not so clearly evident, but are just as essential to an effective organization of the school system.

The people of the community, through their Board of Education, establish the policy that all children, before entering the school, must be vaccinated. The superintendent and Board have probably reviewed the medical evidence and have concluded that the physical welfare of all the children may best be served by this control of possible contagion. The superintendent transmits this resolution to the various building principals, who, in turn, are expected to inform the teachers concerning what must be done by way of enforcement. The teachers, either through instruction to the children or directly to the parents, inform them of what is expected of them with respect to meeting the requirement of the Board of Education. Thus we have completed the full cycle—from all the people to the specific parents of the actual children in school.

This cycle of delegated authority is one which is used for a wide variety of purposes, the above being merely a simple example. Whatever policies, rules, regulations, or prescriptions the Board of Education determines follow this route in their execution. Interaction among the different agencies of execution is most apparent in the relationships between superintendent and Board, and only slightly less so between the Board of Education and the community. They all visibly co-operate on the creation of a policy to control contagion, the co-operation usually extending beyond these to include the health authorities. However, from this point on, execution of the policy is usually a one-way affair, it being imposed on all those responsible for its execution.

When we attempt to follow the line of interrelationships in a clockwise direction, the evidence is not so clear. A concrete illustration may help to clarify the situation.

The people of the community not only directly create a Board of Education to do their educational business, but indirectly and

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often unconsciously influence the kind of education by the children's home and community experiences. The Doe family with ten children, living on the "wrong" side of the tracks, possessing only the barest minimum of economic security, speaking a foreign tongue in the family group, and providing the children with inadequate and undesirable out-of-school play environment, will send to school children who represent a critical need for a very specific kind of educational experience. The children obviously need to have their physical needs considered—enough food to keep body and soul together. They also will need basic instruction in the English language before they can communicate properly with other children and the teacher. They need to develop some self-respect in their individual abilities, instead of being looked down upon because of their inferior economic and social status. And certainly not least of their needs is to develop some concepts of desirable out-of-school activities, and a place where these may be carried on. In general, the children of the Doe family require a kind of educational program which meets their needs.

This program will be markedly different from that offered to children coming from more privileged homes, where there are no complications of language difficulties, inadequate health standards, or undesirable out-of-school experiences. Miss Jones, the teacher of one of the Doe boys, will find that her children come from a variety of backgrounds. Yet all of the children will be products of a certain standardization in environment, represented by the customs, traditions, stereotypes, and institutional ways which characterize the community as a social unit. The task of the teacher is to serve *two* purposes: meet the needs of individual children, and meet the needs of all children determined by their common membership in the community. Thus the curriculum which she intelligently plans will be partly the result of knowing what her individual children need and partly of knowing what all children need. The first part is her individual responsibility as teacher of that group of children, the

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second the responsibility of all teachers facing the common task of educating all children.

These are the *educational* authorities which must determine what teachers do with children. As the teachers work out the plan to meet these needs, the principal can offer competent guidance and direction for their work. If we assume that all other principals are carrying on in the same way, they become the spokesmen for the programs of their individual schools, determining co-operatively with the superintendent the general educational program for the entire school system. This program, then, is interpreted to the Board of Education by the superintendent, with the delegates of the people approving and authorizing such program for the individual schools. The Board of Education must then report to the people concerning the program it has confirmed, in the process of which all the people will be informed about the educational needs of their children.

The Doe family has not necessarily been lost in this organization on the basis of educational need. If Miss Jones is sufficiently informed about the needs of her boy, and insists that her classroom program reflect these needs, and all teachers having one of the children of the family act accordingly, the general educational program of the school will reflect these needs. The accumulation of all similar cases will directly influence the kinds of experiences offered in school. These special needs of children will be represented by the principal to the superintendent, finally reaching the Board of Education and the people in the community.

As the flow of authority courses back and forth, the principal has a double function to perform. He must constantly keep in mind that his responsibility lies equally in both directions—acting as legal authority of the Board of Education, and representing the needs and educational authority of children as these are portrayed through the lives of individual children. Since this second aspect of his position is so often ignored or slighted it seems necessary to devote considerable time and attention to its proper fulfillment. This will be the purpose of the next chapter.

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CHAPTER X

The Principal as School Representative

WHENEVER the school and community come into contact with each other, either as total organizations or when parts of either come into contact with parts of the other, there is need for one person to act as a representative of the faculty. The Parent-Teacher Association is an example of a partial community organization that deals constantly with the school as a unit or with various phases of the school. It is often necessary for one of the service clubs, such as Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, etc., to have relations with the school in connection with charitable activities. The churches have certain relationships with the school, involved in requests for children to be dismissed for attendance at religious functions, the use of the school auditorium for church services, etc. The Boy and Girl Scouts may use the building as a meeting place. If a community council exists, representing a cross section of all groups in the community, the school may even take an active part in promoting the activities of this organization. In all these numerous relationships there is need for one person in the school to act as representative.

It is not essential that this person be the principal, but experience has shown that he is in the most advantageous position to offer this service effectively. The community, controlled largely by conventional ideas concerning the role of the principal, will look to him as the head of the faculty, and will come to him for direction. There are many situations in which the principal must act as head of the school. Legally, he has full authority for the development of the program and the control of the school. He is the chief supervisory

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officer, and the person to whom the teachers look for educational guidance and leadership. He is expected to co-ordinate and fuse the many activities of the school into a co-operative whole. All these responsibilities mark him as the representative of the school.

In this role the principal will need to avoid the danger of slipping unconsciously back into his former position as arbiter of all activities of the staff. A representative is rarely expected to act without directions from the group. The principal will need constantly to remind himself that he is representing the ideas of the faculty and not merely his own. Constant reference to the group for guidance will assure him of fulfilling his proper part in the program. This assumes that the faculty must be clear in its own mind concerning its desires. It may occasionally be necessary to take action without benefit of group approval. In these cases, a full report of his actions should be given at the earliest opportunity with a request for confirmation.

The relationship between the school representative and the teachers may be made clearer as we discuss more concretely some of the actual situations in which the principal will act as representative.

1. *The principal will often deal with individual parents as representative of the faculty.* It is a matter of common knowledge that the attitudes and opinions of parents concerning the operation of the school play an important part in determining what the school does and shall do. The wise principal is one who pays close attention to public relations. He knows that the success or failure of the school's program is determined in no small degree by his ability to satisfy parents on the one hand and, on the other, fairly represent to them what teachers are trying to do. His ability to handle cases where these two forces come in conflict calls for a clear understanding of the importance of parental expectations in relation to the importance of promoting the co-operatively determined program. An illustration of an actual case may help to clarify the issue.

At best, report cards are a constant source of misunderstanding between parents and teachers. Teachers vary widely in their ideas

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concerning the proper basis for grading. In spite of all efforts to obtain agreement, the values attached to report-card marks represent many individual variations. As a child passes from one teacher to the next, the parents are bewildered by the eternal shift in emphasis. In one grade Jane gets a C in arithmetic, while in the next grade she gets a D, although the parents can see no sudden change in the child's arithmetic abilities. The personal comments will also occasion difficulties. The teacher may have sincerely attempted to make the letter grade clearer by a fuller verbal statement, but this often tends to confuse rather than clarify the problem.

This situation was the cause of one parent's visit to the principal. She swept into the office with a glint in her eye that boded ill for someone, a dirty, crumbled report card clutched grimly in one hand. She rudely thrust the card in the principal's face and demanded to know what sense he could make of it. On examination the principal admitted to himself that the teacher had made a pretty confusing statement. In reading, she had given the child a C, while in the space reserved for comments she had written, "If Joan does not make greater improvement it will be necessary to fail her."

The parent wanted to know how Joan could fail when she was doing passing work in the subject. After calming the parent somewhat, the principal went to the teacher's room. She was greatly disturbed over the trouble she had caused but insisted there was no essential inconsistency in her report. Joan was a very poor reader, but she tried hard and had made encouraging improvement during the year. The teacher felt that the child was doing as well as could be expected, so she had given the C. Yet Joan was seriously behind the other children in ability, and unless she showed remarkable progress in the few remaining weeks of the year, it would be unfortunate to promote her to the next grade. She admitted that the comment was not illuminating, but she thought it said what she intended.

It was necessary to bring the parent and teacher together to clarify Joan's report. During the conference the teacher devoted most of her

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attention to satisfying an irate parent. The principal supplied the background of explanation concerning the teacher's purpose. He explained that the staff had agreed to make school marks representative of the child's progress and effort, and to use the space provided for explanations to inform parents about the child's relative achievement. Under these circumstances, the teacher had plainly followed the group decision.

The principal has a clear responsibility for acquainting the parent with the purposes behind the teacher's action. She had sincerely attempted to be co-operative with group policy. But it will require superior skill to convince the irate parent of that fact. She will have no interest in what the school has planned to do, except as it is reflected in its effect on her child. His ability to succeed in convincing the parent that the staff's decisions were made in the interests of helping rather than harming Joan will be an accurate measurement of his skill in representation.

In the foregoing case the principal was dealing with a situation that was only partly the product of a clash between a teacher and a parent. Behind the teacher's action was a cluster of faculty decisions representing what all teachers thought. The attempt to give Joan some credit for her efforts was the result of many faculty discussions. The teacher's subsequent action was based somewhat on what she considered to be the will of the group. The principal, as representative of these decisions, is primarily responsible for interpreting to parents whenever he finds an opportunity. Not the least important outcome of the above case was the opportunity he found to acquaint a parent more intimately with the general viewpoint of the teacher.

2. *The principal must serve as representative in dealing with other faculties.* In many school systems the superintendent periodically calls his principals together to discuss system-wide matters. This often amounts to a polite issuing of orders or an elaboration of some previously determined objective of the chief executive. Occasionally, the principals' meeting is used as a technique for the de-

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velopment of policy for the system. When the former purpose is used no problem of representation exists. Each principal is there as executive of the superintendent and is expected to translate his desires into appropriate action. But when the principals' meeting is used as a means of determining system policy, the principal as representative may have some real problems presented. If he is sincerely interested in guiding his school into workable relations with others in the system, and holds that this good relationship is important for the best welfare of his own school, he may have difficulty in knowing what is best to do.

The troublous situation can best be illustrated by a description of an actual case. In a school system of several elementary schools the principals were called together by the superintendent for the purpose of selecting a textbook for the social studies. The principal of one school had been working with his staff for some months on a reorganization of the school's course of study in the social-studies field. The teachers had worked out an organization that they felt would provide children with a logically constructed and developed series of social concepts. They had been using a series of books experimentally that adequately supplemented their plan of study.

When the principal was called to the meeting he felt obligated to represent the teachers' choice. The superintendent had prepared for the session by securing sample copies of many types of social-studies textbooks which he had on display in the meeting room. After all the principals had spent some time looking casually over the books, they indicated their several preferences. When the time came for an agreement on one series of books, the principal who was attempting to present the viewpoint of his staff found that the book chosen was not the one desired by his staff. There were a sufficient number of other principals who could agree on one series to be able to justify its adoption on the basis of majority rule. It appeared to the principal that he was in danger of being outvoted. He did not relish the necessity of reporting failure to the faculty.

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The problem resided in the fact that while the one principal was prepared to represent the choice of his staff, the other principals were frankly making decisions in terms of their own desires and interests. If compromise were indicated, each principal could make an immediate shift without consultation with anyone else. Neither time nor the consideration of the wishes of others not present at the meeting was of importance.

The principal as school representative deemed that his only hope lay in presenting a vigorous plea for teachers to have the right to some share in determining what materials of instruction they were to use. He pointed out that his teachers had spent a considerable amount of time surveying the possible choices, using a critique of textbook selection in terms of the purposes they had set up for the social-studies program. He outlined rather carefully the criteria they had set up, and indicated the ways in which the various books filled the requirements. At the end he suggested that it was entirely possible that the teachers had made some gross errors, but he thought their work ought not to be ignored. He also suggested, rather pointedly, that it might be fruitful for other principals to lead their own teachers through a similar set of experiences. His scheme worked to the extent that a final decision was delayed until the others had an opportunity to consult with their teachers.

The individual principal was not naïve enough to conclude that the battle was won. He knew his fellow principals well enough to know that the majority of them would return to their schools determined to have their teachers go through the motions of making a choice that agreed with their own. He was sure that one experience with working with teachers on a co-operative basis would not impress the principals with their teachers' intellectual or professional competence. It takes many years of hard, consistent effort to eradicate from teachers' minds the idea that they must do as they are told. It takes many more months of patient labor to build in them the skill and capacity for effective group discussion.

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The principal's only excuse for taking the above course of action was that it seemed the only way he could fairly represent his group, and give him an opportunity to warn them of the impending course of events. The delay gave him a chance to report back to the teachers and get from them some idea of what might be done. In this way they were apprised of the situation before the necessity of taking final action. They could see that the principal was put in a position where he might have to act with others in the interests of system-wide unity. It is to their credit that they fully understood the situation and expressed their willingness to go along with whatever good the principal could salvage.

Perhaps the main lesson to be learned from this case is that it is not always possible to act co-operatively with other schools. The most effective method of combatting domination is to exert greater efforts to obtain co-operation. If the individual principal had been stubborn and refused to go along with the choices of the majority he would have had no right to be surprised if they had failed to understand what he meant when he talked about co-operation. The principals of other schools will learn only as they have experience with the process. The principal who has learned to act co-operatively with his teachers is obliged to use every possible situation in which to provide others with similar experiences.

3. *The principal needs to act as representative when dealing with organized groups in the community.* A considerable portion of the principal's time is typically devoted to meeting with various organized groups in the community: the Parent-Teacher Association, service clubs, charitable organizations, and religious groups. In this capacity as representative of the faculty the principal has a great opportunity to interpret the policies of the teachers and promote a public reaction that will facilitate the work of the school.

The group most often in contact with the school is the Parent-Teacher Association. Organized for the purpose of facilitating the relation between home and school, it is expected that its members

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will make the needs and interests of parents known to the school, and vice versa.

The task of welding the parent and teacher group into a co-operative whole will not always be one that can be approached positively, in the sense that both are already in a frame of mind that requires only positive measures for fulfillment. Many antagonisms, misunderstandings, and frictions are present in the typical relations between the two groups. The P.T.A. has been organized for a legitimate and worthy purpose, which, if followed consistently, could result in improved educational opportunities for children. It does not take too detailed an investigation of the organization's activities, however, to reveal that it has not always stayed close to its main objectives. On the other hand, teachers have not always been particularly receptive to the idea of parents "interfering" with their jobs. It is not unknown for parents to do just this, and the knowledge of these occurrences has made many teachers timid and apprehensive. The thought of spending a wearying day in school, then spending additional hours discussing pupil difficulties with parents, is not attractive. The evidence seems to show that in a large majority of cases, the principal will find that his task of representation has many negative aspects.

Promise of improved relations will come if the principal understands his position and responsibility. He has both groups to work with and against. The teachers will need to define clearly where they stand with reference to the P.T.A.; what obligations might reasonably be expected of teachers; what are the legitimate areas of activities in which they expect the P.T.A. to function. On the other hand, the same expectations should be made of the parent group. What do they expect of teachers in working with the organization? Frank discussion and criticism should be encouraged so that both groups will know specifically where they stand.

This may appear as if the principal must act as a glorified messenger boy, running from one group to the other with messages.

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Actually, in many instances, this may be the case, but this activity does not represent the more important aspect of the principal as representative. Sometimes the two groups will meet together, at which time some of the above considerations will be aired in joint session. But before any good can come from this kind of co-operative endeavor, it may be necessary to be clear about the attitudes of the staff and the P.T.A. separately. In order to get this perspective the principal may have to do considerable running back and forth.

A close relation between the P.T.A. and the faculty affords the principal many opportunities to discharge his responsibility as representative of *both* groups. A rather extended example of how this may be done is necessary to clarify the point.

In one school a new principal encouraged teachers to plan broadly for a redirection of educational effort. Through a series of meetings it was finally agreed that certain technical improvements were advisable. Children should have more firsthand experiences. A school magazine was started as a means of giving children functional use for grammar and composition. Assembly programs were instituted in which children could share with others the things they were learning. They were given more direct responsibility in determining the kinds of experiences they had in the classroom. All these innovations represented a far cry from what the parents were used to.

As the parents accepted the teachers' invitations to come to the school and see how the children were learning, cries of anguish crescendoed to a loud chorus. The school was "progressive," and progressivism was then in disrepute. The children were "playing" all the time and weren't settling down to the hard job of learning something important. Discipline had degenerated to the point where teachers no longer could control the children. Children seemed to be running the school, and that was plain silly. What did children know about running a school?

These comments and complaints were listened to by the teachers with increasing alarm. It seemed that the community did not favor

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the program. Perhaps it would be better if the faculty went back to the kind of education with which the parents were familiar. But then, this would mean that the teachers would have to desert a program for children in which they were sincerely convinced their best welfare was served. Whom should they favor, the children or the parents? Then, too, the superintendent was becoming concerned about this attitude of the parents and hinted that the principal had better slow down a bit.

This principal was not satisfied that the vocal part of the community actually represented the total group. Experience with groups shows that those who do most of the talking are not always expressing a majority opinion. It was conceivable that the parents who were most vigorously opposed were making a serious error in interpretation. Because they were opposed to the program they might feel that this attitude was held commonly by all parents.

The principal determined to find the facts. He suggested that the faculty find out specifically whether or not the program was unacceptable, and in what ways. After considerable discussion it was decided to conduct a survey, preferably conducted by some outside group.

The P.T.A. was asked to help. When the request was made the members gladly accepted the responsibility of conducting the survey. They not only expressed an interest in the results, but they admitted that they were convinced the school should act on the basis of the facts. A committee of twenty-five mothers was created for the purpose of making a house-to-house canvass of the school's community. In order to guide the personal interviews the teachers submitted a list of questions they wished answered about the school's program. This list was mimeographed in the form of a questionnaire, with an opportunity for those interrogated to answer "Yes," "No," or "No opinion." In addition, space was provided in which the answers could be amplified, if desired.

The principal spent several sessions with the survey committee

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instructing them in the methods of an opinion survey. He cautioned the members to adhere strictly to the practice of not revealing their own personal biases as they talked with other parents. The committee was also instructed to ask the questions orally and record the answers themselves. Every effort was made to make the activity an accurate survey of community opinion. The questions were phrased in common language, devoid of educational jargon.

The results of this survey are recorded on page 186.

The results are tabulated in two groups because the survey was intended and *did* cover all families in the community. The replies under "All replies" indicate the attitudes of the total school community. Under "Parents" are recorded the responses from those who had children in the school, or had had children in the school since the reorganization of the curriculum.

There are a good many interesting conclusions to which one could come through an analysis of the findings, but the principal was satisfied that the statement, "The people are opposed to the new program," was not based on an accurate knowledge of the facts. A majority of approval of either 69 percent for the community as a whole or 80 percent of the parents with children in the school could be called healthy. The principal was particularly gratified to notice that the parents and patrons were almost unanimous in approval of the way the school had worked with the community in the interests of children (Item 9). Disapproval of this relationship was almost nonexistent (.8% and .6%).

The results of the survey were not only given in detail to the members of the faculty but were distributed widely among the members of the P.T.A. The most notable outcome was the marked change in the attitude of the teachers. Once more they held their collective head high, confident in continuing a program which they had begun so enthusiastically. Many members of the community who had been rather sharp in their criticism now tended to couch their language in more conciliatory terms. They no longer felt the

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AN INQUIRY INTO COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

	YES %	NO %	NO OPINION %
1. Do you think the faculty is honestly interested in the best welfare of children?			
All replies	69.4	2.2	28.4
Parents	84.1	2.2	13.7
2. Do you think the teachers know their job?			
All replies	70.9	2.2	26.9
Parents	80.6	3.3	16.1
3. Do you think the children receive a well-rounded program of studies?			
All replies	64.2	5.6	30.2
Parents	78.2	6.7	15.1
4. Does the school pay enough attention to good discipline?			
All replies	62.4	13.9	23.7
Parents	67.4	17.4	15.2
5. Is the school doing a good job in teaching the fundamentals?			
All replies	59.6	15.4	25.0
Parents	70.9	18.7	10.4
6. Are the teachers developing good health and safety habits in children?			
All replies	80.2	2.6	17.2
Parents	90.0	2.2	7.8
7. Are the children learning to get along together?			
All replies	76.1	2.9	21.0
Parents	85.6	3.3	11.1
8. Does the school help children to develop many worthwhile activities?			
All replies	76.0	1.5	22.5
Parents	85.6	1.1	23.3
9. Do the teachers work with parents in the interests of children?			
All replies	71.1	.8	28.1
Parents	88.7	.6	10.7
10. Does the report card tell you all you want to know?			
All replies	80.0	13.3	6.7
Parents	81.9	12.1	6.0
Average for all replies	69.0	4.6	25.4
Average for parents	80.7	6.5	13.8

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impressive weight of public opinion behind them; their opinions were clearly recognized as those of a minority group, one that could still be heard, but did not represent the popular mind.

Neither the principal nor the teachers had illusions about the results. They were aware that many respondents to the questionnaire had probably given their opinion without much actual knowledge of the situation. But they felt justified in being satisfied with the survey results. They had set out to measure *opinion*, not fact. It was important to know what these opinions were, whatever the basis in fact.

The most important outcome of the project was a new appreciation on the part of teachers of the attitudes of parents. In turn, the members of the P.T.A. had an opportunity to become more familiar with both the faculty and the program of the school on which they were working. Various members expressed a new understanding of what the school was trying to do. With it came an increased interest in promoting better community recognition of the school's purposes.

4. The principal should act as representative in dealing with the entire community. A community is composed of a diversity of conflicting interests and purposes. Trying to satisfy all these disparities is a hopeless task. It is small wonder that so many principals finally give up in despair. However, there is a great deal of comfort and security in having the entire faculty meet these difficulties on a united front, reserving to the principal the task of carrying out these agreements in concrete action.

The greatest challenge to the principal's leadership is presented by the need of making the school an integral part of community life. Democratic processes in school will be of little avail if the environment into which the children go daily is antagonistic to the way of life being fostered in the school. If the principal is to measure up to the qualities of democratic leadership he must provide opportunities for the members of the community to obtain experiences which will make them more democratic. Bode says that "the school

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is an institution to which the democratic society is entitled to look for a clarification of the meaning of democracy" (14, p. 95). As leader of that school it is incumbent upon the principal to measure up to the great trust placed in him. This means not only active participation in community living but a deliberate attempt to develop opportunities for the community to grow progressively in the direction in which it desires to go.

To help in this direction it may be necessary for the principal to take an active part in the establishment of a community council as a cross-sectional representation of community living. The purpose of this council is to make the desires and needs of the community consciously known. It will also serve admirably as the agency to which the principal can go to interpret the school's program. Through this interactive relationship both the school and the community may be concretely guided in mutual understanding and insight into the needs of both community and children.

This council should be composed of different constituents in different communities, but it might well possess some or all of the following:

1. Representation from the school. This person might be any duly elected member of the staff, but primary responsibility is with the principal. Perhaps one teacher might also be selected to interpret directly the thinking of the teacher group.
2. One member from each of the service clubs in the community. If the community is large and there are several units to each of these clubs, it may be necessary for all units to get together to select one representative. For instance, there may be six Kiwanis clubs in the community. One representative should be selected to serve all six clubs.
3. One representative from each of the church denominations. Again, if many churches are present in the community, it may be necessary to restrict membership to one Protestant, one Catholic, and one Jewish member, etc.
4. A member from the community's political organization now in power, and one member from the political party not in power.

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5. One member from each of the various parent organizations, such at the P.T.A., mothers' clubs, town meeting organizations, etc.
6. Representation from any and all special racial or national groups, such as Negro organizations, turnvereins, intercultural clubs, etc.
7. One representative from the local chamber of commerce.
8. One representative from the local labor council.

If possible, the total membership in the group should be held to less than twenty-five. Experience shows that when the group gets larger than this, problems due entirely to size become so prominent as to curtail and even block the purposes for which the group was originally created.

Not only will such an organization place a tremendous responsibility for educational leadership on the principal, but when it has been finally organized, he will need to act as representative for the faculty group in such a way that his burden is doubled. Competent educators should be equipped to give much needed advice to lay groups on the methods to be used in guiding children's development. But this advice will need to be offered in a nonschool atmosphere and in nontechnical language. The specialized purposes of the school must be translated into terms understandable to those not specially prepared to teach.

This specialized task of representation will challenge every ability of the principal. He must not only accurately portray the purposes and program of the school, but he must also be able to help the community group to use this knowledge in deciding what can be done to help from the outside. For instance, if the teachers have found that concrete experiences are the primary basis for learning, the specific applications used in the school will be different from those used in the home, in the Scout organizations, in the church, or in any other area of children's activity. It will not be particularly profitable for the community council just to know what the school is doing in implementing the principle of concrete learning. The principle will need to be interpreted in other milieus, directly related

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to the environment in which the child is living. This task of helping parents and other community members to see actual ways in which they may help children will be a major function of the principal as representative.

5. *The principal needs to represent the faculty in its dealings with professional organizations outside the school system.* Advancement of the profession of teaching depends upon the active interest and participation by its members in local, state, and national educational organizations. With the possible exception of the local teachers' organizations, most of the meetings will be held at a time and place inconvenient for the average teacher to attend. Someone will need to represent them at these meetings, preferably a person who is skilled in the art of representation. If the principal has been acting as spokesman for the teachers in dealing with other groups there seems to be no special reason why he cannot function just as effectively in strictly teachers' organizations. The present suspicion of administration is due to the failure of administrators to conduct themselves as described in this volume.

If the faculty discusses and determines its position with respect to regional and state policies, and co-operatively functions under the leadership of a skilled chairman, the chances of the group having some important opinions about more distant and abstract state policies will be materially enhanced. Under these circumstances, it is natural for the principal to act as representative of the group in meetings outside the system. The present valid charge that the state association is already overrun by administrators will still hold, but the quality of the "running" will be determined by the people who should determine the policies of teachers' organizations—the teachers themselves. It will certainly do no harm for the individual school to send to these state meetings a person who is skilled in the art of representation.

Obviously, the task of representation is a two-way process. Attendance at educational meetings will be of little value unless the

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principal brings back the outcomes of the deliberations. The faculty members cannot be expected to grow in wisdom and understanding of the more remote and wider problems of education unless an accurate and detailed report of the larger group is made to them.

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V

THE PRINCIPAL AS DIRECTOR OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

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CHAPTER XI

The Management of Personal Relations

Up to this point we have dealt largely with the problems of school administration that relate to the principal's functions as leader of the faculty group and as executor of faculty decisions. It is now time to turn our attention to one of the most basic considerations in human relations.

Ideas, principles, generalizations, are all excellent and valuable directives for behavior, but most of our lives consist of direct contacts with individual people. One of the main principles of democracy is that the individual is of supreme worth and the only concrete reality with which we can deal. Groups are collections of individuals with definite interpersonal relationships. It is the individual who gives the group its reality.

Here is the key to our problem of offering real leadership to the faculty. All the skill in the world in guiding group discussions and executing group decisions will be of little value if the personal, intimate relationships between teacher and principal, teacher and teacher, and teacher and parent are slighted or ignored. An intensive examination of the quality of these relationships is required if one desires success in democratic administration.

Finding a place to begin is the easiest part of the problem. One begins where one finds the problem. Teachers are constantly coming to the principal with problems. In this initial personal contact the principal can find the material for effecting improvements in human relations, whether it be between him and the teacher, between two or more teachers, or between a teacher and parents.

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In helping the teacher with her problem the principal has a choice of three general alternatives:

1. *He can do nothing about it.* This choice will absolve him from any responsibility for what happens, but it is not calculated to increase the teacher's faith in his willingness to help teachers with their problems. It has the net effect of slamming a door in their faces and of shutting off any further chance to offer positive leadership. If the principal is sincerely interested in helping teachers with their problems, this is a poor choice indeed. However, it would be instructive to discover how many times a day a principal may choose this alternative on the excuse that he is too busy with other matters to take time to help teachers with their "silly" requests. It is our contention that helping teachers with their problems, no matter how seemingly simple or irrelevant to educational concerns, is of primary and fundamental importance, to be superseded by few other responsibilities.

2. *The principal can choose to give the teacher the very best advice and direction of which he is personally capable.* This choice, at first glance, seems like an essentially reasonable one. In fact, it is a matter of record that many principals look no further than this. They reason that this is *their* school, and it is only sensible to make the decisions which control the actions of those who are working for him.

Due reflection will reveal that in this direction lies a minimum of hope for eventual reduction in the amount of time a principal can afford to spend on the personal and individual problems of teachers. A teacher will come to the principal with a problem that is real to her. He offers a solution which the teacher carries out in practice and finds successful. What will be her natural reaction when another problem arises? Of course, "Take it to the principal." If the principal earns the reputation of successfully solving all the problems teachers bring to him, he can look forward to the dubious pleasure

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of spending the majority of his time in this manner. He will soon wonder where he will find time to do anything else.

And this will not be the greatest difficulty to be encountered. Many of the decisions he will make will affect others who were not originally involved. For instance, a teacher in the fourth grade will come to the principal to complain about the poor preparation her children received in the third grade. If the principal takes action that adversely affects the third-grade teacher but benefits the fourth-grade teacher, he can expect repercussions that will do little to cement the working relationships between the two teachers.

When a principal elects to dispose of teacher problems according to his own best judgment, teachers will watch his decisions with extreme interest. Over a period of time the general trends in his thinking will be revealed, providing teachers with a cue to what they may expect in the future. Accusations of favoritism, partiality, and bias will be the general result, regardless of how fair these judgments may be. This is a poor way to assure the best and smoothest relationships in the school. Individual teachers will vie for the honor of being "in the know" or close to the confidences of the principal. Some teachers will be recognized as "pets," others will know that their standing is low and can expect no favors. A ranking of one's standing in the principal's estimation becomes a primary influence in determining what one does in the classroom. "Will it please the principal?" becomes a more important question than, "Is it good for the children?" It is difficult to see how a defensible program for children can be founded on such a personalized, political basis.

3. *The principal can choose to call into conference all those who are affected by the decision, and offer his leadership in the achievement of a co-operative decision.* Regardless of how simple or uncomplicated a teacher's problem may seem to be, if one looks carefully enough one will find that the solution involves relationships that often go beyond the problem. A teacher may have an element in her make-up about which she is worried. It may be a simple matter of

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oily hair, bowed legs, overweight, grouchy disposition. It would seem that these are entirely matters of personal concern. But if the item is sufficiently disturbing to force the teacher to go to the extremity of consulting the principal about it, there is likely to be more than meets the eye. *Why* is the teacher upset? The only reasonable answer is that the possession of this undesirable trait interferes with the teacher's relation to *other people*. No one objects to a trait which is admirable to others. Thus the problem is one of social relationships. The point to be emphasized is: *the solution of the problem is important to the possessor*, no matter how unimportant the principal may think it is.

Most problems facing teachers are usually more severe than these. Often the problem is crowned by an overt conflict which brings it to a head—and also brings it into the principal's office. Sometimes it is even necessary for the principal to go out and look for the trouble, as we shall presently show.

In all the cases in which the principal is involved in a teacher's problem he will find its best solution in discovering *all* the related elements, particularly the implications *others* will draw from the method used. Co-operative solution of common problems is not only good theory, it is the most practical and successful method known. However, as we have constantly reiterated, it takes skill, knowledge of all the variables and intangibles, and a profound understanding of the process. Faith in the ability and willingness of people to solve their own problems when given adequate help is not a necessary prerequisite, but it certainly helps!

The most important point to be considered is whether or not the principal uses a method of solution that promises a progressive reduction in the amount of time he spends on these matters. His hope for a lightened load rests on his ability to help teachers to solve their own problems, whether they be personal ones, those that involve their activities with children, other teachers, or the public.

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SOME ACTUAL PROBLEMS

In the pages to follow in this chapter and in the next, we shall discuss some concrete cases which typically confront the principal. In each we shall be pointing out the importance of doing three things: (1) Obtaining a solution agreeable to the individual or individuals involved (2) by using a method which will serve as a model for all subsequent cases (3) in which the principal is careful to include all relevant factors which must be taken into account.

I. It is an easy matter for the principal to reason, when he finds certain teachers possessing personality deficiencies which are more or less socially unacceptable to others, that this is a purely personal matter and of no professional concern of his. He may be sorry to know that one of the teachers is a social misfit, but it is difficult to see what relationship this has to the educational program being carried on in the school. Such a conclusion would be unfortunate, as we shall see.

A principal discovered that one of his teachers was apparently not acceptable to the rest. Whenever teachers gathered, she was noticeably absent. She remained in her own room during the day and left school alone as soon as her work was done. In teachers' meetings her contributions to discussions were regularly ignored by the group, although the principal thought she often had something important to say. He did admit that the teacher had an unfortunate capacity for voicing her opinions in such a way that it made others want to quarrel rather than accept. She was highly positive in her statements and took every occasion to raise objections to whatever anyone else had to say. If the faculty was in agreement about the time and place for a party they were planning, she could be counted on to find some reason for objecting. If the teachers had decided to restrict attendance to the immediate faculty members, she didn't see why they couldn't invite their friends. The principal admitted that he found

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the teacher personally irritating, an irritation he had consciously to quell.

Here is a case in which the purely personal qualities of a teacher offered difficulties in the development of an educational program. True co-operative endeavor was difficult if not impossible under the circumstances. It might be argued that since the program was operating well for all other teachers, it was the responsibility of this one person either to conform or else apply for transfer to a situation where she could be more congenially located. But there must be some basis for the teacher's antisocial attitude and conduct. Before any action could be justified it was important to discover all relevant facts.

Investigation of the teacher's background revealed many items of information that were helpful. As a child the teacher had always been a lonesome person. An only child of superior intelligence, she had been led to believe that most people were inferior, socially and intellectually. Her parents had encouraged her individualistic tendencies to the point where she could now accept only with great difficulty the equal status of others.

During a conference with the teacher the principal patiently explained the situation with respect to her position on the faculty. All other teachers had readily accepted the framework within which they carried on their professional responsibilities. General policy was made by the faculty, with each teacher executing that policy in her work with children. The principal's position was that of educational leader and executive of this policy. Whatever he had to say to individual teachers with respect to their personal behavior was based on a sincere desire to implement and facilitate this policy. It was apparent that the success of this method of working together depended largely on the best personal interaction among the teachers. Anyone who felt that this imposed too many restrictions on the individual's freedom had the complete right to ask for release from the school.

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From the evidence that was unearthed the principal presented the teacher with two clear alternatives: (1) She could make a mighty effort to understand the importance of good social relations, particularly the importance of studying the techniques of making faculty contributions in a manner that would make them more readily acceptable. (2) Or the principal could seek an opportunity to have her transferred to another school where the emphasis was not strong on social interaction.

Of the two choices the principal strongly favored the first. There was no reason to suppose that, by conscious effort, the teacher would not be able to improve her relations with others. She was an attractive person, one whom the principal had found to be unusually delightful company when completely separated from the school situation. Her classroom work was painstakingly accurate and conscientious, although her natural tenseness made the children more rigid and obediently responsive than the principal liked to see. Success was mostly a matter of having the desire to succeed. Only as a last resort would he favor transferring the teacher.

Subsequent events proved the accuracy of this prediction. The teacher was both intelligent and conscientious enough to recognize the merit of the idea of improving her standing in the group. Through guidance by the principal in teachers' meetings her contributions took on a more conciliatory note. Other teachers recognized her efforts to be friendly and met her advances halfway. While it would be inaccurate to report that the teacher became one of the most valued members of the group, it is true that her membership was less of a burden for the others to carry and tension in the group was considerably eased.

It should be noted that the principal was balanced in a very delicate position. If it had been necessary to use the second alternative—transfer to another school—it would have been difficult to avoid the inference that the teacher had been politely fired. Since this person had often taken issue with the principal, a seemingly logical con-

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clusion would be that it was dangerous for one to have opinions that differed from his. All the patient building of confidence in his integrity and sincerity would have been for naught.

II. In every group of teachers one may be found who is always looking for special favors. One such teacher approached the principal with the following plea: "I spend a great deal of my energy each morning serving the educational needs of children. By noon, I am physically and emotionally exhausted and need a period of rest and relaxation. I will do a much better job in the afternoon if I am permitted to take the noon hour off to get my lunch away from the children."

Like all schools this one had the responsibility of supervising the noon-hour period for those children who stayed for lunch. It had always been agreed that this was a job for the entire faculty. While all teachers would like nothing better than to turn the task over to somebody else, they realized that this was impossible. Here was a teacher who wanted special dispensation because she claimed greater need.

The principal was able to verify the teacher's claim. On special occasions when this teacher had been able to get away from the building at noon she returned visibly refreshed and able to conduct her afternoon program with more vitality. It was obvious that she was one of those people who has small reserves of nervous energy which are quickly depleted and need frequent replenishment. One might reason that this sort of person ought not to be in the teaching profession, but if all such people were excluded there would be a serious shortage of teachers.

Merely granting the teacher's request on the basis of the evidence, which the principal considered valid, would be a poor way to build good relationships between her and other members of the staff. It is not at all unlikely that others would conclude that the teacher had obtained a special privilege through the use of unusual

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persuasive powers. If her success were enviable, it would be a signal for others to attempt a similar program of importunity, the end of which is readily discerned. The principal felt that wisdom dictated some other method of meeting the problem.

In a conference with the teacher he suggested that she grant him a period of time in which to make arrangements which would be universally fair. At a subsequent teachers' meeting he brought up the problem of teachers in general needing a period of relaxation during the middle of the day. He suggested that some revision be made in the present plan for supervising the children. It required only a matter of minutes to agree on a weekly schedule of staggered assignments to the playground, lunchroom, and halls, whereby only one-third of the teachers were required to be present at any one time. Two weeks out of the three those teachers not on assignment could be free to leave the building at the noon hour. Those who had no desire to do so could still consider the time as their own, free from concern for children.

While this arrangement may not have been ideal for the teacher who had originally requested it, it had the virtue of being fair to all. It would be difficult to accuse the principal of having been callous to the individual needs of teachers; it would be equally difficult to accuse him of having played favorites.

III. Not all the problems in human relations are those which come to the principal as a result of a teacher feeling the need for his help. People who work with the teacher in one capacity or another will often feel that the teacher needs some direction from the principal, such as custodian, school nurse, librarian, cafeteria manager, etc. Occasionally, a more mature pupil will register a complaint against the teacher.

A pupil in the sixth grade came into the principal's office and asked to see him privately. Jane was a thin, nervous little child. The principal knew her as a very bright girl with a serious inferiority

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complex. Her parents, both exceptionally well-educated, had talked to him about Jane. It seemed that they were dissatisfied with her school progress. The principal could find no fault with her record in scholastic achievement; she had maintained an average consistently above the median of her group. But her parents felt that she ought to be more outstanding in her work. They had worked diligently to make her a superior student, but Jane seemed unwilling to make the extra effort they knew she was capable of exerting.

As a result of this parental pressure the teacher had reported Jane as a poorly adjusted child, going out of her way to flaunt her superior knowledge before the other children, demonstrating impatience and contempt for their more modest abilities. Jane had even shown a marked hostility to the teacher, resenting any effort to guide or advise her in her social relationships. And now Jane wanted the principal to do something about the unfair treatment she was receiving from the teacher.

Jane reported that the class had been discussing a proposed field trip, a visit to the coal freighters on Lake Erie. Jane had already been to the docks with her parents and was unwilling to go again. She said her parents thought she could more profitably spend her time studying. The teacher had then suggested that if that were the way she and her parents felt about it, Jane could stay home on the day the field trip was to be taken.

Jane felt abused by this treatment. She told the principal she thought the teacher had treated her shabbily. She admitted that she really was not as opposed to the trip as she sounded, but something inside her had prompted her opposition to the idea. The principal listened sympathetically to the recital of the tearful girl, then suggested that she go back to her room and he would see what he could do about it.

The principal was in an uncomfortable situation. Obviously, the girl had been a nuisance in the room, and the teacher had taken a means of disciplining her which she thought fair. In talking with

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the teacher after the incident, the principal discovered that Jane had irritated her with superior airs. She admitted that she had been a little harsh, but Jane certainly needed to be kept in her place. The teacher knew of the parents' attitude toward Jane; she had talked with them on several occasions.

The principal had to be careful in this incident not to supersede the teacher's authority in management of the child. If he had taken the matter into his own hands the teacher's position would have been uncomfortable, if not untenable. The parents would have been grateful to him if he interceded in Jane's behalf, but there is no doubt how the teacher would have felt. On the other hand, the principal felt that the teacher had been indifferent to the child's difficulties; it was clear to him that the poor girl was caught in the meshes of overambitious parents, and was reacting rather understandably under the circumstances. It did not seem fair to penalize the child.

A considerable amount of time was spent in the ensuing teacher-principal conference studying the problem of Jane. Suggestions from both were made and reviewed. It was finally agreed that what Jane needed desperately was someone who would view her problems from her point of view, one who would understand her and try to help her achieve recognition for her own native abilities. The child was unusually artistic. Perhaps she could be encouraged to feel superior about something in which she had a legitimate right. If she could be shown that recognition of her talent implied, in return, recognition of the special abilities of others, there was some chance that she might be guided into better social relationships with her classmates.

This agreed-upon approach was then applied to the difficulty to see what promise it held. Jane was allowed to go on the trip for the particular purpose of drawing sketches of the barges, docks, cranes, etc., and helping other children to make a mural depicting the scenes on their return to the classroom. Her special interest in the

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trip would offset any chance of her feeling that it was merely a repetition of an experience she had already had. Since the group would be interested in carrying on some follow-up activity as a culmination of their field experience, this would give Jane a position of leadership. If the teacher guided her contribution to the group skillfully there was reason to hope that it might be the beginning of a new relationship. Both principal and teacher felt that the suggestion was worth trying.

The principal was not to interfere with the teacher's authority to impose punishment for the girl's impertinence in the classroom. The teacher had to realize that that was her special province. The suggestions in conference were made solely for the purpose of exploring other desirable lines of action which she might follow. If she could not honestly accept a modification in her proposed course of action with Jane it would be unfortunate to force her to adopt a solution in which she was not wholeheartedly in sympathy. The result of the conference had to be the emergence of a unanimous decision, the product of two minds centering on a common problem. The principal had a golden opportunity to help a teacher understand a child and her problems more intelligently.

The disposition of this case in no way settled the problem of parental pressure. That called for further conferences with the parents only after the school situation had been satisfactorily settled. If the procedure agreed upon by the teacher and principal eventuated in a change of behavior in Jane—as both hoped and expected it would—it was conceivable that the quality of her work in all areas would improve appreciably. Her native ability had been seriously obstructed by her social failures. Removing the obstacle would make it possible for her to exert her talents in every direction. Once the child tasted the delights of group approval in one line of endeavor, it was entirely likely that she would wish to extend her efforts in other directions.

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Such cases as those cited in this chapter can often be used as a valuable point of departure for full faculty discussions about the ultimate purposes of the school. While we have limited the discussion to persons directly involved in the solution, all cases have implications for the staff as a whole. Many worthwhile teachers' meetings could profitably be held on a review of actual cases which come before the principal daily. As a result of the consensus reached by the group the principal will have an invaluable guide to govern his actions in subsequent cases that surely will arise.

From the foregoing discussion it may be helpful to summarize some of the generalizations that emerge from a consideration of actual problems. Particular attention should be paid to the role of the principal as he conducts his office in the interests of teachers. The following points are offered at this time as tentative hypotheses, to be tested in further experience in the next chapter.

1. *Whenever the principal is presented with a problem his first consideration is to be of practical assistance to the teacher.* When a teacher wants help, she wants something more than a flood of words with a philosophic flavor that reveal confusion and indecision. Principals who deliberately delay giving practical help will find that teachers avoid coming to them in the future. However, it must be remembered that teachers also prefer a ready-made solution for immediate application. But in this direction lies a continual stream of importunities which so completely occupy the principal's time that he will find it impossible to get anything else done.

2. *The solution of human problems depends upon a scale of values which differs with each individual. What one teacher will consider appropriate will not do for another.* All cases must be treated as unique. Personalities are never the same; dealing with personality should always be individualized. Only as the teacher and principal learn all the relevant facts of the individual case, and act on the basis of them, will a sensible, practicable solution be found. Evaluation of these facts in terms of the *teacher's* scale of values is necessary

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before she will know what to do in this or any other similar case. The principal should help the teacher develop a method of attack which follows the simple process of: (a) stating the case as unemotionally as possible; (b) being sure that all the relevant facts are known; (c) acting on the basis of the facts, instead of unconscious prejudices, preferences, habits.

3. *Apparently simple problems almost always have a wider frame of reference.* Sight must not be lost of the fact that the school faculty is an organic whole. What affects one part will have varying effects upon all other parts. What one teacher does has implications and influences on other teachers. This is particularly true of what the principal does. His action in any individual case will reveal to teachers the values he personally holds. Since no staff will be far removed from autocratic administration, the habitual practice of doing what the principal wants will unconsciously mold the behavior of others. If he makes arbitrary decisions in individual cases, these actions will give the clue to "acceptable" behavior. This is a poor road to group formation of policy.

4. *Whenever any decision is made which involves others, these individuals should be included in determining the nature of that decision.* The nature of the problem will usually determine what other persons are involved. If the case involves only the single teacher, the solution should be sought through a conference with her. If more than one teacher is concerned with the decision or its execution, these individuals should first be consulted before final agreement is reached. Whenever the solution to a single problem involves a major policy of the school, the entire faculty should be included in the preliminary discussions.

5. *The principal's main function is management of the situation, so that all involved have adequate opportunity to come to decisions mutually acceptable.* This last generalization requires a great deal of skill in dealing with the personalities involved. It calls for an understanding of the deviations in personality patterns, a profound

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concern for a maximum amount of agreement possible in any given situation, and a faith in the ability and willingness of others to put into practice that which they have had a share in determining. The principal must be constantly on the alert for opportunities to increase the responsibility of teachers for solving their own problems, so that progressively less and less of the task falls on his shoulders. In general, the principal must seize every chance to "widen the area of shared interest" and promote the cause of democratic attack upon common problems.

Since this last point needs considerable amplification, the following chapter is devoted to a consideration of problems of greater scope and complexity, from which we shall attempt to abstract further understanding of the principal as manager of human affairs.

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CHAPTER XII

The Management of Conflicts Among Staff Members and Parents

If one were to concentrate on the personal difficulties found in the typical school it would be easy to conclude that life would be a great deal more agreeable in a boiler factory. The purpose of the present discussion is to analyze some of these difficulties in order to understand better the means the principal may use in helping teachers get along together. These difficulties fall into three broad classifications.

1. *Teachers have trouble in getting along with one another.* Recognizing that some people are tolerant, progressive, and broad-minded, while others are narrow, conservative, and socially poorly adjusted, will not explain away all the human-relations problems that are encountered in the school. Much of the difficulty lies in the fact that people are different, and that in the past difference has been considered to be undesirable. The principal will find that one of his greatest problems in getting teachers to work harmoniously together is that of getting recognition that differences are *desirable.* Instead of legislating for conformity, and therefore mediocrity, effort should be expended in making people unalike. Group agreements, and a central fund of common understandings, are fundamental to the best operation of any social organization. But once the nucleus of policy and program has been determined, individual interpretations and variations should be permitted and expected.

2. *Teachers have difficulties in getting along with parents.* It is only natural to expect that human beings who have difficulties in the group will experience a like deficiency in working with those outside

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the group. Part of the problem of achieving rapport among parents and teachers may be found in the disunity and conflict in the faculty group. If the teachers do not present a united front in dealing with parents, they will seek their own solutions. One teacher will conclude that the best way to get along with parents is to do what parents want—or what she thinks they want. Another will decide that teaching is none of the parents' business, and therefore she will do as she pleases. Some teachers approach parents in fear and trembling, others with the same dominating demeanor with which they rule the lives of children. It is no wonder that wide chasms of misunderstanding and mistrust are built by the piecemeal, unplanned approach to public education.

3. *Teachers, finally, have difficulties in achieving a unity of purpose and program.* Not all the problems teachers face in getting their work done are created solely because of disparity and disunity. It is only fair to admit that when a group of teachers elects to operate on the basis of group control, many old problems remain, and many new ones are added. While the balance sheet will surely show a credit on the side of co-operative endeavor, the debit side will not be untouched. When human beings deliberately take on the job of changing their habitual behavior, or redirecting it into new channels, it is only natural that they will approach the problem with timidity, unchanneled behavior patterns, and a lack of skill, all of which produce their own difficulties. Under dominant, firm-handed dictation there will be a surface appearance of unity entirely lacking in true co-operative undertaking. The sores and festers of conflict will be on the surface for all to see.

In order to help the reader through the labyrinths in the pathway to better human relations, the following descriptions of practical situations are offered. They are selected to represent examples under the three heads just enumerated: (1) getting along together, (2) getting along with parents, and (3) getting along the road to co-operative interaction.

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A CONFLICT BETWEEN TEACHERS

A fourth-grade teacher came to the principal with the following complaint: "I have been teaching fourth grade for the past fifteen years, and in all my experience I have never had a more poorly prepared group of children. I'd like to know what Miss Jones was doing all last year. If she would pay more attention to getting her children ready for fourth grade, instead of spending so much time fooling around with such silly things as clay modeling, painting, and playing games, I wouldn't have to teach two grades in one year. As it is, the children don't know how to read, they can't spell a single word I give them, and it doesn't look like they ever opened an arithmetic book. I think something should be done about it."

The teacher who made this complaint, as can be readily gathered, placed great emphasis upon subject-matter acquisition. Her long tenure as fourth-grade teacher had given her a fairly accurate norm on which to base her contention that this group was inadequately prepared. She had consistently maintained a high standard of achievement with her pupils, and had a vested interest in continuing this performance. Her reputation in the community made her feel that it would be a serious matter to fall below expectations.

The third-grade teacher was a more recent product of teacher education. She had attended a reputable institution which attempted to strike a happy balance between children's activities and the techniques of teaching subject matter. No one could accuse her of practicing an extreme form of teaching. The principal had been particularly pleased to note the care with which she had taken in subject-matter fields, while still reserving an adequate amount of time for creative and recreative phases of child growth. He had personally complimented himself on the luck of choosing a new teacher so wisely. By all reasonable standards she could be expected to carry out a program beneficial to normal eight-year-olds.

The fourth-grade teacher had been a force in the community for

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many years. She had many friends among the parents of former pupils who felt that without her services the school would suffer. Many parents had indicated that they thought this teacher the best in the school. This, in spite of the fact that many children underwent a rather startling transformation from well-adjusted, normal, healthy children to intense, overconscientious, worried pupils during the year they spent in her room. There was no question about the teacher's ability to impart subject matter, but the principal and many other teachers felt that this special talent was overplayed for the parent grandstand.

The principal had two problems instead of one, the problem of the teacher and of the conflict she was creating. She would not abandon her successful practices without great resistance. Not only was she "successful" in her work, but even more important, the parents approved of her success. If she were to find her position assailed in the school she could be comforted by the thought that she could take her case to the people and be absolved. Recognition of this fact did not make the principal feel happy about the matter. To impose his own values would precipitate a conflict from which he might easily emerge second best.

Discretion is not only the better part of valor but it pays rich dividends. To create a scene by taking sides with the third-grade teacher would serve only to hasten disaster. The program of education the principal was attempting to inaugurate was not sufficiently well established to submit it to a critical test of public opinion. Recourse to such an extremity would only serve to frighten teachers who had exhibited a certain amount of courage in modifying classroom practices in the first place.

A conference between the two teachers only served to high-light the differences in their philosophies. Each was convinced that she held a defensible position; that the other was unnecessarily stubborn and willful in failing to see the opposing point of view. Miss Jones argued vigorously and well for the introduction of more varied ex-

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periences for children. This would inevitably reduce the amount of time that could be devoted to subject-matter learnings. She also questioned the right of any one teacher to set arbitrarily what must be done in the preceding years.

On the other hand, the fourth-grade teacher presented the time-honored argument that the elementary school must get children prepared for the junior high school. If each teacher did not work vigorously to carry her fair share of the load the task could not be accomplished. She was also convinced that one of the crying needs of the world today was a generation of people who possessed a greater fund of knowledge with which to attack the ever-increasing complexity of modern living. It was clear that the teachers' prime difficulty was a radically differing set of educational values.

The principal attempted throughout the discussion, if such it could be called, to point out where the seat of difficulty lay. At the end of the long and wearying conference, he confronted the teachers with the possible alternatives. Either the two could continue to operate as heretofore, with certain anticipation of continued disagreement, or they could find some common ground on which to operate. It was suggested that, since the question was common to any two teachers, an answer might be found by reference to the entire faculty. Both teachers agreed that the problem was of sufficient scope and importance to justify it as a faculty concern.

A series of meetings was subsequently held, in which the entire faculty worked valiantly on the relative merits of subject matter versus children's experiences. The teachers discovered, as a result of these meetings, that they all had been approaching the problem as though the two aspects were dichotomous and exclusively different. When it was discovered that "subject matter" was a name that could be applied to the *content* of children's experiences, the group was well on the way to answering the more important question: "On what basis shall we organize the content of children's experiences—the logical bodies of organized knowledge, or the functional aspects

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of children's living?" Needless to say, this question provided a springboard for a further series of meetings, in which even the fourth-grade teacher's educational perspective was modified.

It would be erroneous to report that this particular case ended in complete harmony and accord. Changes in viewpoint take place over a long period of time and very slowly. The principal must not only be patient with the inabilities of people to make radical reconstruction of their experiences, but must continuously supply them with opportunities for working at it. Success is more likely to be found in developing a group position which will exert some influence on individual thinking than in imposing his own opinion, particularly in a case as critical as the above. The fourth-grade teacher will find it considerably more difficult to oppose the united opinion of an entire faculty than she will to resist the desires of the principal. It is relatively easy to contest his educational authority; it is something else to stand opposed to a whole group, particularly if it is one in which the individual desires membership.

CONFLICTS BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PARENTS

Occasionally, teachers and parents have misunderstandings that amount to major crises. The responsibility of the principal in these cases goes much further than acting as moderator between two warring factions. He must be concerned with effecting a better working relationship between parent and teacher. It is no distortion of the truth to say that the confidence of the parent depends to some degree on what he thinks of the teacher personally. Too often teachers have been content to rest on their professional laurels, leaving human relations to chance and circumstance. The principal can make an important contribution by providing opportunities to cement personal relations more closely.

We do not mean that the interpersonal relations between parents and teachers should be based solely on friendship and the use of winning personality tricks. No shallower basis could be found for

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building a defensible educational program for children. Uppermost in the mind of the principal must be the adequacy of the program. It is merely common sense to present the on-going program in the most agreeable manner.

Since the principal cannot be available for every contact of teachers with parents, he must make the faculty members as skilled as possible in their dealing with the public. Understanding of the following factors will help in achieving this skill.

1. *Parents generally look upon teachers as being somehow different from normal human beings.* Most parents have had contact with teachers solely as teachers in their own student experiences. Since most of these experiences produced a feeling of awe and uncritical respect, it is natural that this feeling will carry over into their parent-teacher relationships.

2. *Most teachers view parents as exercising undue control over professional activities.* The deference with which teachers tend to hold parents is the direct product of fear and feelings of insecurity in the professional job. It has constantly been dinned into the ears of teachers by timid administrators that unless the school does as the community wants, the teachers are in danger of losing their jobs. Since the community must be embodied, the parents with whom they are dealing are logically viewed as the force which controls their destinies.

3. *Unmarried teachers, who constitute the overwhelming majority, are not in a position to understand the special perspective with which most parents view their children.* Unless one is a parent it is difficult to appreciate the point of view of fathers and mothers. But the teacher is much better able to evaluate the behavior and ability of the individual child dispassionately and objectively. This gives her an opportunity to help the parent achieve a like attitude, provided the teacher does not ignore the different approaches both make to the same child's personality and problems. While it is impractical to propose that only teachers who are mothers shall teach,

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it is mandatory that unmarried teachers strive to understand the perspective of the parent.

4. *Parents use their own school experiences to measure the worth of their child's educational program.* If the teacher operates on the assumption that successful teaching is measured by the amount of parental approval, she is basing her program on a foundation that permits no progress. While parents will tolerate a small amount of deviation from the accustomed, the basic values they found in their own school experiences must be readily apparent, or approval is withheld. For instance, one parent made a violent objection to a sixth-grade teacher's social studies program because she did not have a period of the day labeled "geography," in spite of the fact that the child was learning a great deal more about geography than the parent ever knew. If the school is to make progress in tune with modern educational theory and practice, teachers must expect and be willing to meet many uncritical and shortsighted parental objections.

5. *Teachers possess an understanding of child development usually denied the parent.* From the background of training through which every competent teacher has gone she has abstracted a broad understanding of how children grow and develop. This development is not even, nor is it the same for all children. But parents, who spend too much time comparing the development of one another's children, are not likely to recognize or admit the individual differences in children. If Johnny is not at the same level of learning as Joan is at the same age, the cause is likely to be located in the shortcomings of the teacher.

6. *Success in parent-teacher relations is based on acceptance of the above differences between parent and teacher, and going on from there to weld these differences into a common approach to the child's educational development.* Few parents exist who are not primarily and sincerely interested in the most advantageous development of their children. Conflicts between parents and teachers seldom arise

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because one is interested in the child and the other is not. Problems originate over the disagreements concerning what constitutes the best development. It will do the teacher no good to ignore this fact; on the contrary, it must become the starting point from which both may progress toward agreement. The pathway is long and the progress slow, but it is the teacher who must provide all the sympathetic understanding, tolerance, and patience, since it is usually she who possesses the larger view, the longer perspective. Whatever effort the principal needs to spend in driving this point home is a valid use of his energy and leadership.

It may be helpful to describe rather concretely how this leadership may be offered. In one sixth-grade room a new boy was enrolled during the middle of the semester, coming from a near-by school in which the management of children's conduct was radically different. In the new school the teachers believed in the establishment of group policies determined partly by the children themselves. Beyond these general agreements the teachers usually needed only to remind individual children of the agreements made, and to help each child to co-operate more effectively with other children. The school from which the new boy had come was administered on the opposite basis. Children were considered as immature members of society who needed a strong hand in guiding them into the "right" way of behaving. The teacher was the sole arbiter of what was right.

It took only a matter of days to reveal to George's new teacher that she had a major task of re-education on her hands. George interpreted the freer atmosphere of the classroom as an invitation to license. Since the teacher did not seem to punish children, he reasoned that he had a right to do as he pleased. Released from the repressive discipline of the former school, he could not be blamed for enjoying his new freedom to the fullest. Conferences with the teacher after school did little to prove to George that there was any identifiable disciplinary control in the classroom. He continued to be

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impudent to the teacher, un-co-operative with the children, and a general nuisance to everybody. Matters came to a head when the teacher horrified herself by slapping George's mouth in repayment for a specially daring piece of impertinence.

The teacher voluntarily reported to the principal that she was heartily ashamed of herself for using methods of which she so completely disapproved, but which seemed to have worked wonders on the boy. George had miraculously reformed and now showed signs of co-operation. The principal agreed that one finds success in rather surprising places, and that in a similar situation he would probably have acted no differently.

But the two reckoned without the parent. The teacher and principal had no sooner finished complimenting themselves on a successful conclusion to a difficult case when they were interrupted by a stentorian voice in the corridor demanding audience with the principal. On the scene rushed a man of gargantuan size, ready to do violence to anyone who would lay a hand on his son George. Since the father was of such girth as to preclude the possibility of meeting him on his terms, the principal concluded that he would be better advised to conciliate.

It was with the utmost difficulty that he got the father to sit down and talk about his son, rather than to go into immediate action and punch someone's nose, preferably not that of the principal. The conversation was guided into a discussion of George's good points and the school's efforts to bring them out. Dishonesty was not necessary, since George did possess many fine traits, of which obedience was not one. It was not long before the principal was able to get the father to tell of his ambitions for his son, and the difficulties he encountered in the home in achieving them. He was frank to admit that George was hard to handle, a point on which the principal was quick to seize to emphasize that independence was a good trait if properly handled. The father readily admitted that he had to deal with George in a vigorous manner—his polite way of saying that

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he "beat the devil" out of him on occasion. The principal could understand that this was in accord with the father's violent nature.

He wondered if the father had considered other ways of dealing with George's disobedience, whether he could not be handled better by gaining his confidence and co-operation. Further discussion along this line revealed that when the father was sufficiently patient and understanding George did respond to this approach, but the father was quick to anger and usually lacked the patience required. From this admission it was an easy step to convince him that sometimes teachers felt the same way. Although it was an admittedly poor procedure, the teacher was also subject to the common human frailties. Without overly dwelling on the details it can be reported that the father left, not only with a more wholesome attitude toward his son, but a deeper appreciation of the problems of teachers. Instead of a sworn enemy the principal had earned an ally for the better guidance of the child.

Not every case of conflict can achieve this success in solution, but the opportunity for developing more wholesome relations exists in every case. No better use of time in teachers' meetings could be made than in a prolonged consideration of the intricacies and competencies required in the art of dealing with parents. From this general fund of understanding and appreciation individual teachers should show much improvement in their ability to deal effectively with parents.

HUMAN RELATIONS BETWEEN STAFF AND PRINCIPAL

Teachers who have spent many years "working for" a principal will experience great difficulty in freeing themselves from the deeply ingrained impulse to respond uncritically and immediately to what he personally wants in a given situation. Of all the human-relations problems the most difficult and puzzling is that of securing freedom of thought and action on the part of the teachers. Every slight indication of preference will be accepted as law, every positive

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statement of opinion will automatically represent the restrictions beyond which teachers will not feel free to go.

At no place in the welter of mutual responsibility of the staff will this show more clearly than in the interpretation of test results. Tests have the bad habit of determining the quality and kind of teaching done in the school, regardless of who has decided that they shall be used. If the principal attempts to help teachers to profit from the testing program through an interpretation of the results, he can make or break the relations with his staff he has worked so painstakingly to build up.

The principal's role as interpreter of educational tests is to help teachers understand more clearly just what the results imply for their future efforts in the classroom. If he is honestly interested in reducing the friction and antagonism between himself and the staff he could not find a more fortunate place to begin. In order to help the reader to understand the complexities and delicateness of this task, the following concrete illustration is offered.

A certain school had been working co-operatively for an entire school year on the development of a program which aimed at the all-round improvement of children's learning. While subject-matter achievement had been given reasonable emphasis, the teachers felt that other areas of the curriculum deserved equal consideration. They had provided ample opportunity for children to get guidance in their social development. They had encouraged explorations into the fields of art, music, and manual construction. Many adventures into the world of firsthand experience were provided. All of this had inevitably taken some time from the more traditional phases of the curriculum.

The school system, of which this school was a part, had a planned program of subject-matter achievement testing. Parallel to the achievement testing was a program of intelligence testing. Each time a testing program was administered from the central office the

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superintendent insisted upon a publication of the results, with the usual odious comparisons made among the different schools.

This system-wide administrative policy had grave import for the work of the individual school. In spite of the zeal with which the teachers wished to pursue their own educational objectives, there was always the specter of fear of the results which would be obtained on the testing program. The principal reasoned that the willingness and in fact the freedom of the faculty to continue to modify its program depended greatly on his skill in making a liberal interpretation of the results.

The accompanying table of the test results for this school during the past several years was duplicated and presented to the teachers.

	1st Gr.	2nd Gr.	3rd Gr.	4th Gr.	5th Gr.	6th Gr.
Age norms	6.7	7.7	8.7	9.7	10.7	11.7
Chron. age	6.9	7.9	9.0	10.1	11.1	12.3
Read. age	6.8	8.8	8.9	10.1	11.4	11.2
Mental age	8.2	9.6	9.9	10.3	12.3	12.1
Grade norms	1.7	2.7	3.7	4.7	5.7	6.7
Read. grade	1.5	3.1	3.4	4.5	5.6	5.3
Read. quotient	99.4	110.6	99.7	98.8	103.3	90.9
I.Q	119.7	116.4	108.6	103.0	110.8	97.8
Accomplishment quotient	80.2	91.0	90.5	97.0	93.0	93.0

NOTE: The reading quotient was derived from the original table of distributions and will not necessarily prove arithmetically from the figures given above. This is most notable from the reading quotient for the fourth grade. The accomplishment quotient is computed by dividing the reading quotient by the intelligence quotient. The reading test was the Gates Reading Test, the intelligence test the Otis Group Intelligence Test.

As the principal studied these results he came to several conclusions which he included in a bulletin. In the first place, one of three things was true about the children's intelligence: either they were much smarter than anyone had supposed, or the teachers had made a constant error in checking, or the tests themselves were an inaccurate measurement of the children's ability. The first could be easily discounted. Other tests had consistently shown the children to be of normal ability. If this test result was a gross error, the read-

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ing, intelligence, and accomplishment quotients were spurious and ought to be disregarded.

In the second place, the principal could conclude that while all grades but the second showed less than average achievement in reading, the difference was not serious, except in the case of the sixth grade, where the difference between grade norm and the actual reading grade was over a year. This represented a serious difference and justified investigation.

The teachers listened to these comments, as they were presented verbally in the next teachers' meeting, with mixed emotions. Naturally, the second-grade teacher felt elated; her scores were the only ones that showed better than average achievement. She awaited in eager anticipation the special commendation she thought she had earned. The other teachers could squirm under the mild indictment the test results indicated, but she could bask in the sunshine of her principal's approval.

It was the sixth-grade teacher who rose to defend herself. She pointed out that, despite the fact that the test may have overrated intelligence, it seemed to be a common error applying to every room but her own. She wanted the group to note that her children received the lowest average score in the school. Even if the test results were inaccurate, they still showed that her group had the lowest intelligence. She was quite positive that this was actually the case, a fact to which the other teachers readily attested. It appeared that she had a valid interpretation of the cause of her poorer results.

The second-grade teacher was called on to explain her class's higher scores. She began by assuming full credit for the success, but the other teachers, particularly the first-grade teacher, would have none of it. The class had shown unusual ability when in the first grade. The present first-grade group was equally competent, but because the teacher had deliberately delayed the beginning reading program according to the agreement of the faculty, her present

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class would not show the same good results until they, too, were in the second grade.

Other teachers questioned the desirability of measuring children in terms of national norms. The school was in the center of a large foreign-born population. The children came to school with poor language backgrounds; many of their parents did not speak English at all; some of the children actually had to be taught English after they started school.

The teachers had other things to say about the reading test. They pointed out that the Gates test was constructed on the assumption that those who took it had been taught the Gates system of reading, using the vocabulary controlled by that system. But the school was using another basal text. The teachers wondered if it would not be fairer to test the children on the reading they actually had been doing.

As a parting shot to the whole business of testing, the teachers finally pointed out, not without justice, that the children were consistently older than the age norms for the grade: the first and second grades two months older, the third three months, the fourth and fifth four months, and the sixth grade a full six months older than the average expected for that grade. In spite of that, instead of the children being below average in achievement, if one took the age norms instead of their chronological age as a basis for computing reading achievement, they would be, with the exception of the sixth grade, consistently above the average. They wanted to know why it was not just as fair to measure children by age norms.

The principal was amazed at the ability of the teachers to do logical thinking from the facts. They saw through the thin veneer of statistics to the important considerations of children's growth, recognizing that figures need to be interpreted in terms of many things. Properly interpreted, objective measurement in education has a valid place in determining the school's program, but the

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teachers were positive that the test results should not be the sole factor in determining its adequacy.

The presentation of the findings of the testing program, with ample opportunity and encouragement to express reactions to them, led to a greater awareness of the problem of reading and a vigorous interest in doing something about it. The teachers saw that this was not another attempt on the part of administration to judge them arbitrarily in terms of test scores, but an honest attempt to find the facts and what they implied for future action. While the teachers could easily have been content to rest on the seemingly satisfactory job they were doing—with the exception of the sixth-grade teacher—their spirited analysis of the findings led them into a deeper understanding of the place and importance of both testing and reading in the total program. It would be difficult to deny that this attitude of professional desire to improve was anything but wholesome and promising.

Apart from this good effect, the co-operative analysis gave a boost to good human relations. Unemotional consideration of all the facts helped the teachers to arrive at conclusions supported by the evidence. The willingness and ability of the principal to assist in making a valid interpretation materially improved the relations between him and the faculty. The various members were encouraged to discover that the principal was more interested in proper interpretation than he was in a cold analysis of impersonal data. Teachers could not help but conclude that here was a co-operative friend, anxious to aid them in making the most of their educational opportunities. It would be less simple in the future for teachers to make him the scapegoat for their educational troubles. In him they had found a friend and protector against the unreasoned and narrow interpretations of teaching efficiency they had formerly found in the testing program.

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VI

EVALUATION

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CHAPTER XIII

The Evaluation Process

If there is good reason to propose that teachers assume the responsibility for determining the school program in the first place, it is sensible that they also control the methods by which their success is determined. The kind of program in which they collectively believe, the kinds of educational goals most worthy of achievement, their concept of the place of school in society, all will determine for them the kind of testing and proving program they will adopt. The sense of this book would be completely violated if we were to insist at this point that a special kind of evaluation program must be used to determine success.

However, there is one kind of validation of the results of the co-operative process which is justified, regardless of the conclusions of the staff. Proof lies in an appraisal of the co-operative process itself. The individual staff in co-operation with its principal must work out its own proof of educational effectiveness in terms of the conditions under which they work. But all staffs may discover a single *process*, common to all.

The proof of the values of co-operative endeavor lie in the reactions of the individual and the group to the use of the process. Do teachers obtain more satisfaction in teaching as a result of having a share in determining policy? Does the group as a whole feel that the quality of its work has improved as a result of working more harmoniously together? Individual and group satisfactions are the best measurement of the effectiveness of group action.

The group which desires to obtain an evaluation of its work will

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need to answer the question: has our working together made it possible to make real progress toward the goals we desire to reach? The goals will need to be stated specifically, and a method of measurement used which will give them some objective evidence. If they can discover a method of ascertaining the extent to which they are making progress toward these stated goals they will materially increase their satisfaction in the work done.

One element of democratic action stands out as a fairly reliable measurement of success. Democracy depends vitally on the presence of a core of common agreements held as important by all members of the group. If some measurement of the amount and quality of this central fund of agreement can be made, some assurance can be given that the group is moving in the right direction. The extent of the movement and the direction in which it is going are properly the province of the members to determine. Thus if we can obtain some measurement of the unity of thought, we have more than a mere personal estimate of success.

THE TECHNIQUE OF GROUP EVALUATION

Securing the measurement of this common core is not a particularly difficult problem. It merely requires that the principal remain loyal to the process of democratic action which he has consistently tried to guide throughout all other activities of the staff. Several steps in the process of evaluation, which remain the same for all groups, are clearly delineated.

1. Agreement must first be secured on the desirability of attempting to evaluate. Mere statement of the need will usually assure agreement, provided the presentation of the idea does not come too early in the teachers' experience in the co-operative method.

For example, if the staff has been working on the process of faculty control for only a short period of several months, they may be so immersed in the mechanics of the process as to be confused by its newness. To further burden them with the responsibility for

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making a judgment about their success at this stage might prove unfortunate. The process has not had sufficient time to mature to the point where teachers have ability to measure it. It is wise to delay the evaluation process until the staff has had not less than one full year of experience. Longer incubation periods make the outcome even more assured.

2. Once the staff has agreed that some measurement of their success should be attempted, the second step is to determine what should be measured and the presence or absence of appropriate devices by which this measurement can be made.

This may call for a concerted effort to unearth all the potentially usable schemes for evaluation. The staff may wish to engage in a study of the processes of evaluation for children to see where these might be adapted for adult use. After all available instruments have been studied it would be appropriate to suggest that the staff may have to devise its own measuring stick. If this appears to be the only reasonable solution, the next step may be introduced.

3. It is important that the teachers have a large measure of control of the evaluation process throughout its use. After the first two steps have been agreed upon—the need for evaluation and the areas to be evaluated—the principal can suggest that a committee of teachers be constituted for the purpose of working with him on the actual construction of the instrument. The particular form in which the instrument is finally made will call for expert direction. In spite of the fact that teachers have had considerable experience in constructing tests, their ideas of form tend to be restricted by the notion that there are only two kinds: objective tests and essay examinations. The principal must possess a broader knowledge of test forms in order to help the teachers select or construct the one that will be most useful for their purposes.

4. The "survey committee," as it might be called, should elicit generous contributions from all faculty members concerning the

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particular items that should be included in the test. For instance, if the teachers have agreed to measure the quality and character of the leadership of the principal, every teacher should have an opportunity to suggest some aspect of that leadership on which she would like information. One will suggest that teachers should know how the group feels about the principal's skill in leading discussions; another will offer the suggestion that some estimation be made of his managerial abilities, etc. The larger the number of ideas, the better the measurement device.

5. After all contributions have been received by the survey committee, these may then be constructed in a form which should be duplicated and returned to the faculty for criticism, corrections, and further additions. From this further refinement a final form will ensue. The final form as approved is then ready for permanent duplication and to be used in evaluation.

6. The completed forms should be distributed to all teachers at the same time, preferably at a faculty meeting called for that purpose. All blanks should be marked independently by each teacher and returned to the survey committee members. No opportunities to compare notes on individual answers should be given. The reason for this is clear. The purpose of the evaluation is to measure *group* opinion as it is expressed individually. If several teachers have a chance to discuss their responses before making them, individual members will be influenced by the opinions of the more dominant thinkers. Accurate measurement of individual opinions can be assured only if each is free from outside opinion at the time judgment is made.

7. The survey committee should be instructed to make a tabulation of the results. These results should then be made known to the staff. Several subsequent faculty meetings could profitably be held on an analysis of the findings and the implications they portend for future action of the group.

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IMPORTANT FEATURES OF AN EVALUATION FORM

There are four important general principles which should guide the construction of the measurement device. Experience with its use prompts the suggestion that these four principles can be ignored only at great expense to the validity of the results.

1. It is mandatory that the teachers be given the privilege of recording their answers as anonymously as possible. If they are to be encouraged to respond frankly on items that are likely to reflect on the personal competence of the principal or colleagues, they must have the assurance that it will be impossible to determine the identity. So long as teachers feel that their answers may jeopardize security in the group we have no right to blame them for playing safe. While fearless frankness is a quality of character we all admire, it represents a goal to be achieved in human development, and not a current accomplishment of all.

2. When opinions are called for it is necessary that the respondent have an opportunity to shade her judgments, rather than expecting a restrictive "yes" or "no" response. There is no magic number of degrees of shading, but certainly three should be a minimum. This allows a person to choose among "yes," "no," and "I don't know." Five is a much better number of choices, which gives two steps between an extreme positive and an extreme negative.

3. In attempting to measure as complex a phenomenon as human judgments, it is important to give as wide a sampling of areas as possible. Generally speaking, the larger the number of items on the test form, the better the chance of obtaining an accurate picture. Too narrow a measurement of areas of opinion is likely to produce a skewed picture that would be corrected by a wider sampling.

4. Finally, it is important that the instrument be so constructed that it is possible to make some sort of numerical summarization of the results, such as percentages of those responding, actual number of cases choosing a certain position, etc. Since it is intended that

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teachers themselves will be apprised of the results it is necessary that the presentation be as simple as possible. If intricate and statistically complex methods of interpretation are used it is certain that the average teacher will be denied constructive or intelligent insight into their meaning.

AREAS OF GROUP EVALUATION

As earlier stated the areas to be appraised should be determined by the faculty. Since this is a new procedure to most readers it may be helpful to present sample areas that have actually been used by a school faculty, and discuss some practical considerations. These areas are neither the only ones that can be used nor do they necessarily represent the most important. They merely indicate what one staff considered important.

1. *Our philosophy of education.* After having worked for several years on a conscious attempt to formulate the philosophical position to which the teachers would subscribe they desired to discover to what extent they had been successful. Since no instrument existed by which to make this measurement, it was necessary for them to construct their own. When finally constructed the evaluation form permitted them to react to three important aspects of their philosophy: (*a*) the degree to which there was agreement with a definite position in educational philosophy; (*b*) the amount of change in thinking that individual teachers thought had taken place during a five-year period; (*c*) the quality of the change, if any.

Below is reproduced the instruction page and some sample items of the actual form used.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHERS' ATTITUDES

This is a series of tests constructed to ascertain the attitudes of teachers with reference to some important areas of activity in the school. Instructions for each area appear immediately before the section. Read over the

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instructions carefully. Mark your set without consultation with other teachers. Be as objective and fair as possible. The results, if they are to be of value, must represent the honest opinions of teachers. DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME. Your identity will remain anonymous. You should feel perfectly free to be brutally frank if necessary.

I. *TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL PHILOSOPHY*

Below are listed statements which represent a definite position in our philosophy of education. You are asked to rate each item on three phases: Your acceptance of the position, the change in your thinking in the past five years, and your estimation of the worthwhileness of the change.

In Column I appears a scale of three steps on which you should record your present acceptance of the statement by putting a circle around the number which best represents your attitude according to the following key:

1. You wholeheartedly agree.
2. You partially agree, but have some doubts.
3. You wholeheartedly disagree.

In Column II appears a scale on which you should record your attitude toward the following question: "How much different is your position today from what it was five years ago?" Put a circle around the number which best represents your attitude according to the following key:

1. Radically different.
2. Some change.
3. No change.

In Column III record your attitude toward the following question:

"Is the present position a better or worse one than that formerly held?" Put a circle around the number which best represents your attitude, using this scale:

1. Change is for the better.
2. No appreciable change.
3. Change is for the worse.

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STATEMENTS OF PHILOSOPHY	Column I Acceptance	Column II Amount of Change	Column III Quality of Change
1) A progressive society counts individual variations as precious since it finds in them the means of its own growth.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
2) Social problems cannot be solved by an individual, however skilled, precisely because the solution of all social problems is found in the coming to agreement of groups of men who have been holding conflicting opinions.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
3) Education is the art of making living itself an art.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
4) Schools were instituted to provide an enlightened electorate in a democratic government.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
5) The school is charged with the development of social efficiency.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
6) The school should develop in its charges an attack on the problems of life—a problem-solving technique.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
7) Schools are developed in order that the child's experiences be continued and his understandings enhanced.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
8) Schools should be concerned with the child's development now, instead of preparation for a future society.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
9) The aim of the school is to help each child, through teacher guidance and direction of the child's own activities, to live an ever-richer social and individual life.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

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STATEMENTS OF PHILOSOPHY	Column I Acceptance	Column II Amount of Change	Column III Quality of Change
10) Learning is a process of growth through the adjustment of past experiences to meet the child's needs more and more completely.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
11) Knowledge is achieved through the child's contact with facts as they exist in a natural, lifelike situation.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
12) Knowledge cannot be obtained through the process of addition of repetitive learnings isolated from context.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
13) Children learn according to a rate of progress individually determined.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
14) Every child grows up in a social environment and is a product of that environment.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

2. *Evaluating membership.* Since democratic procedures depend so heavily on interpersonal relations it is important that some judgment of the worth of individual membership be made. The form does not attempt to make an appraisal of individuals as such but reveals the extent to which an individual approves of what other individuals do. It would probably be hazardous, and certainly unprofitable, for one individual to rate another. All that one would obtain would be the personal antagonisms and emotional biases held among members in the group. It seemed better to the group to make the evaluation more impersonal. Each member was asked to judge the *faculty*. It was clear to all that the faculty was not some abstract entity but a composition of real people.

In the sample page reproduced below it will be noted that the staff desired to measure two things concerning the quality of their membership in the group: (*a*) the extent to which the members had achieved the ability to act in accordance with the standards repre-

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sented by the items in the list; (*b*) the amount of progress individuals thought the group had made during the preceding five years.

II. *EVALUATING MEMBERSHIP*

In this section you are asked to rate the faculty as a whole on the following items. In Column I circle the number which best represents your estimation of the degree it has been achieved by the faculty as a whole. Use this scale:

1. The faculty possesses it to a high degree.
2. The faculty shows some tendency to possess it.
3. There is no evidence of even slight possession.
4. There is a tendency for the faculty to act in the opposite direction.
5. The faculty shows a completely opposite tendency.

In Column II record your estimation of the change which has taken place in the faculty during the past five years. Use the scale:

1. Much progress has been made.
2. Some progress has been made.
3. No progress has been made.

	Column I Achievement	Column II Change
1) Teachers are willing to admit the merit of ideas which differ from theirs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
2) Teachers listen with respect to ideas which are opposed to theirs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
3) Teachers recognize the worth of classroom or school practices which are different from theirs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
4) When an individual teacher is slow to accept the decision of the group, the teachers bear patiently with her until agreement is reached.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
5) Teachers live happily and contentedly in an atmosphere of divergent opinions.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
6) Teachers accept the fact that a different *point of view* influences individuals to make different decisions.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3

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	Column I Achievement	Column II Change
7) Teachers "practice what they preach."	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
8) The philosophy of education held by the staff actually directs practice in the classroom.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
9) Teachers always present the same point of view at all times.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
10) The teachers feel that teaching is a profession and as such is worthy of one's loyalty.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
11) Teachers are willing to sacrifice personal desires for the good of the program.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3

3. *Educational methods.* The final test of the success of any process of group thinking will be found in what it contributes to the actions of individual members. Sight should never be lost of the ultimate purpose of the use of the co-operative method in school—improvement in the lives of the pupils. Many valid tests for measuring the change in children's behavior are available, but the staff wanted to discover to what extent the members of the faculty honestly felt that these changes were significant. They reasoned that if they had succeeded in defining and agreeing upon a defensible philosophy of education, and then put that philosophy to work, it should result in improved educational methods.

The sample page given below represents the means by which the teachers attempted to obtain this information. It is divided into two parts: (*a*) a judgment of the consistency with which teachers felt they had carried out their philosophy into practice; (*b*) the degree of success each teacher thought she had achieved in making the listed practices contribute to the welfare of the children.

III. *EDUCATIONAL METHODS*

Below are listed many educational activities. You are asked to rate *your* use of them. In Column I record your estimation of the degree to which your practice conforms to your philosophy of education (i.e., are

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you doing what *you* think is best, or are you practicing according to someone else's ideas of how to teach school). Use this scale:

1. The practice is the result of my own notions of what is best.
2. The practice is governed by what I think the administrators desire.
3. The practice is the result of habit and tradition.

In Column II estimate to what degree your practice is contributing to the best interests of children, *according to your own philosophy*. Use this scale:

1. The practice makes a significant contribution.
2. The practice makes some contribution, but not much.
3. The practice has no particular effect on the child's true educational progress.
4. The practice tends to hold up educational progress.
5. The practice is wholly bad for children.

	Column I Consistency	Column II Achievement
1) Allowing children to plan their daily work independently.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
2) Working with pupils in planning daily activities.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
3) Assisting pupils in selecting subject matter of units.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
4) Arranging with children for experiences in democratic procedures.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
5) Giving children opportunities to develop responsibility by assigning them specific duties.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
6) Letting children assign their own duties.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
7) Assisting children in making evaluations of their own work.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
8) Demanding of each pupil work which is equal to his capacity.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5
9) Judging children's work on the basis of capacity.	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5

4. Democracy in school administration. Throughout a long period of experimentation the faculty had attempted consistently to put in

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practice a point of view in school administration. The members had reasoned that if teachers were to take an increasingly active part in the operation of the school, some fundamental reorganization of conventional practice was required. Since most of the teachers had had many years of service in schools administered according to the then accepted methods it required a conscious effort on their part to readjust their thinking and practice to the new concepts. If the newer principles and procedure were to operate effectively it was necessary that there be a clear understanding of what they implied. The following sample of this section of the evaluation form reveals that the teachers wanted to discover two things: (*a*) the extent to which individual members believed in the statements of principles of democratic administration; (*b*) the degree to which these principles had been effectively put into practice.

The complete form covered the following areas: (1) general principles of school administration; (2) democracy in curriculum construction; (3) the management of teachers' meetings; (4) the effective use of teacher committees.

IV. *DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION*

Below are listed a series of positive statements concerning a point of view in school administration. Your task is to evaluate these statements in terms of your degree of acceptance and of your estimation of their achievement in our program.

In Column I appears a scale of five steps on which you should record your position by circling the number which best expresses your acceptance of that statement according to the following scale:

1. You fully agree without reservations.
2. You agree in general, but have some doubts.
3. You are undecided.
4. You tend to disagree, but not entirely.
5. You fully disagree without reservations.

In Column II you are asked to record your estimation of the degree of success attained by the faculty in making the point of view functional in practice. Use the following scale:

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1. In general practice.
2. Used occasionally.
3. Little or no evidence of its achievement.

General Principles	Column I Acceptance	Column II Achievement
1) Teachers with the principal should determine the direction in which the school goes.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
2) Teachers with the principal should determine the broad outlines of the program for the school.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
3) Determination of policy and program should be achieved through co-operative thinking and planning.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
4) The group (i.e., teachers and principal) should allow for individual interpretation and application of group plans.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
5) All members of the group should have a fair and equitable share in the formulation of policy and program.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
6) Teachers should be free to decide whether or not they shall contribute to the group's activities.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3
7) Teachers should feel free to make any contribution they think would be valuable to the group.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3

5. *An evaluation of the principal.* Of all the areas of evaluation perhaps the one most rich in the rewards of helpful information is the teachers' judgment of the principal as educational leader. The success of the co-operative process depends greatly on his ability to offer the kind of guidance the teachers feel is positive and helpful. It makes little difference to them whether the practices of the principal are in conformity with accepted principles of school administration. Members of a group will always measure success in leadership in terms of its assistance in helping them get where they want to go.

In constructing a form such as the one reproduced below it is particularly important that the principal observe faithfully all the cau-

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tions listed at the beginning of this chapter. It is here that complete anonymity must be assured. Teachers should have positive encouragement to include any item which they feel is important, however embarrassing the publication of the results may be to the principal. If he cannot afford to have his weakness revealed it would be better not to use the instrument at all. The intimate revelations that may be forthcoming indicate that this type of evaluation should not be used until the principal and the teachers have worked together sufficiently long to have achieved a friendly and equitable relationship. Its use too early in the co-operative process may lead to frustrations and disgust with the process itself.

Since this is such an important aspect of the whole evaluation process the complete form as it was used by a school staff is presented. It is important to emphasize and repeat that this form should not be used verbatim by any other group. To do so would violate a basic principle—the staff which uses the form should determine its content.

V. *AN EVALUATION OF YOUR PRINCIPAL*

In a school organized on the basis of democratic control, where the members of the faculty acting as a group develop the important policies and program of the school, it is particularly important that the principal be made cognizant of the desires of the individual members of the group so that he may function more effectively. It is important that he gain some notion of how well he is functioning in this capacity.

After each statement appear the numbers 1 2 3 4 5. Each statement is a positive one. You are asked to place a circle around the number which best represents your opinion according to the following scale:

1. Your response is in complete agreement with the statement.
2. You generally agree with the statement, but have some reservations.
3. You are undecided. You can think of arguments for and against the statement.
4. You tend to disagree, but feel that something might be said in the affirmative.
5. You wholeheartedly disagree without reservation.

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DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME. Your entire co-operation and frankness are earnestly solicited. Only by such action will this technique have real value. The answers and summarization will be presented and discussed in a subsequent teachers' meeting.

1. *Administrative Organization*

1) The principal's office is operated in the interest of teachers in so far as it is humanly possible. 1 2 3 4 5
2) Clerical work is done for the teachers when it is needed. 1 2 3 4 5
3) Classwork is done by the school secretary in the way you want it. 1 2 3 4 5
4) The office asks teachers to fill out and submit the minimum number of forms and statistical information. 1 2 3 4 5
5) Scheduling of special rooms and equipment is handled in fairness to all teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
6) Classroom discipline cases are handled by the teachers with full assistance and no interference by the principal. 1 2 3 4 5
7) Supplies and textbooks are distributed efficiently and fairly. 1 2 3 4 5
8) The principal makes routine administrative assignments fairly, without special favor to any teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
9) The principal has arranged his time so that teachers may see him as conveniently and as often as necessary. 1 2 3 4 5
10) Teachers feel free to use the office as a service agency. 1 2 3 4 5

2. *Supervision*

Teachers' Meetings

1) Meetings are held only when needed. 1 2 3 4 5
2) Meetings last only as long as necessary to conduct the business of the school. 1 2 3 4 5
3) Meetings are interesting to attend. 1 2 3 4 5
4) Meetings help the teacher develop and keep a consistent direction for her classroom program. 1 2 3 4 5
5) Meetings inspire and stimulate you in your educational thinking. 1 2 3 4 5

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6) You are given ample opportunity to express your own point of view. 1 2 3 4 5
7) The discussion method is the best basis for conducting meetings. 1 2 3 4 5
8) The subject matter of meetings has been of practical assistance to you in your classroom program. 1 2 3 4 5
9) In general, the time spent in meetings is warranted by the good which is derived from them. 1 2 3 4 5

Class Visits

1) The principal visits your classroom as often as you wish. 1 2 3 4 5
2) You have no fear of the principal when he enters your room. 1 2 3 4 5
3) The principal's visit results in practical assistance to you in your program. 1 2 3 4 5
4) The principal stays long enough when he visits so that he is able to get an adequate picture of your program. 1 2 3 4 5
5) It is better for the principal to visit by invitation than by a set schedule. 1 2 3 4 5
6) The present program of visiting provides you with an adequate number during the year. 1 2 3 4 5
7) The principal's attitude in the classroom inspires confidence and friendliness. 1 2 3 4 5
8) The principal does not interfere with the regular classwork when he is visiting. 1 2 3 4 5
9) In general, you are satisfied with the present method of class visitation. 1 2 3 4 5

Teacher Conferences

1) The principal offers helpful suggestions when conferring with the teacher. 1 2 3 4 5
2) The time spent in conferences is well worth the time it takes. 1 2 3 4 5
3) The principal is interested in theory only as it clarifies the practical application in the classroom. 1 2 3 4 5
4) You are not afraid to "bother" the principal with your smaller classroom problems. 1 2 3 4 5

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5) When you talk with the principal he makes you think your problems are important and worthy of consideration. 1 2 3 4 5
6) You feel free to approach the principal on any problem in or out of the classroom. 1 2 3 4 5

3. *Educational Leadership*

1) The principal does not use his position of inherited leadership to impose his will on you. 1 2 3 4 5
2) He honestly tries to be democratic in his relations with teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
3) His qualities of leadership help you to think through problems for yourself. 1 2 3 4 5
4) The principal makes you feel that he means what he says. 1 2 3 4 5
5) He gives the impression of knowing what he is talking about in educational matters. 1 2 3 4 5
6) The principal does not have any "pet teachers" whom he favors. 1 2 3 4 5
7) He shows by his actions that he has confidence in his teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
8) When a good piece of work is done full credit is given the teacher without any attempt to share in the limelight. 1 2 3 4 5
9) The principal is a person with whom it is easy to talk. 1 2 3 4 5
10) He does not hold himself aloof from other members of the staff. 1 2 3 4 5
11) He shows in his dealings with teachers real respect for the opinions of others. 1 2 3 4 5
12) Conformity in thought is neither expected nor demanded by the principal. 1 2 3 4 5
13) The principal does not attempt to dominate you by the force of personality. 1 2 3 4 5
14) The principal has shown that he can "take it." 1 2 3 4 5
15) He willingly accepts ideas from others and puts them to use. 1 2 3 4 5
16) He is ever ready to accept new ideas and integrate them with others offered. 1 2 3 4 5

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17) The principal presents an agreeable disposition at all times. 1 2 3 4 5
18) He consistently holds an educational point of view which you would call "progressive." 1 2 3 4 5
19) The principal shows no personal irritation toward you. 1 2 3 4 5
20) When you ask for an opinion from the principal you do not get an evasion. 1 2 3 4 5
21) He has shown due regard for the feelings of others. 1 2 3 4 5
22) The principal never plays one teacher against another in order to maintain his dominance. 1 2 3 4 5
23) He is not too absorbed in the power and worth of his own ideas to be unwilling to accept them from others. 1 2 3 4 5
24) He is capable of seeing more than one side of every question. 1 2 3 4 5
25) The principal shows an unusual amount of enthusiasm for his job. 1 2 3 4 5
26) If you do your work as you think it should be done the principal will loyally defend you to others even when he is not in agreement with your methods. 1 2 3 4 5
27) If you should get into trouble with parents or school officials the principal may be expected to defend your case. 1 2 3 4 5
28) The principal so conducts himself in meetings that he helps the teachers to do a better job of thinking together. 1 2 3 4 5
29) Working in a school where the teachers determine the policy is more enjoyable than where the principal is the sole boss. 1 2 3 4 5
30) General Judgment: The principal is a real educational leader who has a high degree of ability to help us plan and execute our own program of education. 1 2 3 4 5

INTERPRETING THE RESULTS

The arithmetic involved in tabulating the results is elementary. Each of the statements made has been deliberately expressed in positive form, with the affirmative response arbitrarily assigned the

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numerical value of 1. The sequence of numbers is intended to represent a sliding scale away from 1 in the direction of a negative response. When teachers have circled the number which best represents their reaction, this indicates how nearly they approve the statement made. If the statement represents the most desirable position, a tabulation of variations from this desired position will give the interpreter an insight into the amount of uniformity in agreement, and the extent to which this agreement varies from the desired position.

Suppose, for example, that there are twenty-five teachers who mark the evaluation form on an item with five steps in the scale. The results might be as follows:

Four mark 1	1 × 4	4
Seven mark 2	2 × 7	14
Ten mark 3	3 × 10	30
Four mark 4	4 × 4	16
None mark 5	5 × 0	0
		64 divided by 25 = 2.56

This number, 2.56, represents the group's reaction to this item. Interpreted in terms of the language of the scale, this means that for this item the staff stands halfway between positions 2 and 3, or a position of general agreement that tends to go in the direction of no definite attitude. Position 3 in most sections of the form represents a reaction that is either neutral or one with the pros and cons about equally divided in the mind of the teacher.

It is essential to interpret the results in terms of individual variations. The extent to which the group tends to disperse their votes over the entire scale represents a need for further investigation. Why have the teachers not achieved more common agreement? Unless answers to the questions raised by the evaluation are sought, there is little value in going through the motions of finding out what they are.

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If the evaluation process ends at this stage of tabulation little good will result. The purpose of measuring teacher reactions is to provide concrete evidence that will guide their future actions. Considerable time should be spent in an analysis of the results, with every effort expended to interpret the scores in terms of what needs to be done.

A great deal of space could be used at this point to provide sample evaluation of results. The temptation is restrained primarily because there is danger that the reader will use these interpretations as standards of measurement. The results obtained by a faculty using a form of this kind must be interpreted in terms of the local conditions. What might be valid for one group would be completely inapplicable for another.

A word of caution needs to be given with respect to the attitudes with which the results of this evaluation are met, particularly those of the principal. It is not unlikely that some of the tabulations will reveal serious weaknesses in the program. Embarrassing revelations of personal inadequacies of the principal may have a glaring light of publicity thrown on them. Unless he is personally willing to have his incompetencies exposed, unless he is willing to submit his case fairly to public analysis and judgment, the process had better not be used. His willingness to accept unemotionally and professionally whatever outcomes emerge from the process will provide others with a model to copy. A spirit of professional desire to find the facts must permeate the actions of all. Again, the principal will be called upon to exert dynamic leadership in helping individual teachers and the group as a whole to use the results in the betterment of their co-operative program.

Evaluation is a continuous process that continues as long as the thing evaluated exists. One of the main features of the above technique is that it shall be repeated at stated intervals and a comparison made of the changes over a period of time. As the teachers become

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more skillful in handling the technique the results will become more valid and usable.

A concomitant outcome is nearly as important as the direct one. Through the willingness of the teachers to submit their activities to the light of public criticism they will be encouraged, individually and collectively, to be more concerned with their classroom progress in the co-operative process. Their primary experience in this activity is basic to an understanding and conviction of the importance of its use with children. Teachers have provided themselves with a chance to become more intimately acquainted with the basic processes of evaluation, an area of the school program desperately in need of renovation and improvement.

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CHAPTER XIV

The Transition Period

CHANGING from the accustomed to new ways of behaving creates its own problems. Throughout this volume we have attempted to present a new concept and program for school administration. To assume that introduction and implementation merely demand a change of heart would be contrary to the facts. The shift in administrative authority is itself a major operation, bringing with it its own set of problems. This chapter will bring out some of these problems realistically and frankly, and propose what may be done about them.

EXTERNAL INFLUENCES ON CHANGE

In making changes in school organization and administration one must remember that the group directly affected is not the only factor to take into consideration. The teachers may be fully prepared to adopt a new way of working together, but since they are an integral part of a total community, the need for caution in progress is great. Schools that have made radical changes in their programs have usually created great furore and disapproval. Parents have insisted upon judging the value of the new program in terms of their own experiences. Anything that differs widely from what they were used to in their youth is condemned as "new fangled" and "fads and frills." Amply validated changes have earned the same condemnation as the more questionable theoretical changes. Enriched opportunities for children have often been denied as a result of unwise or hasty shift in educational emphasis.

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A faculty that determines to make some significant changes will need to consider the problem of method seriously. How quickly can the teachers afford to make innovations? How much will the community stand during any given period of time? What will actually represent progress in the long run? What will be the net effect of instituting programs that are unknown to or not understood by the parents?

Depending upon the character of the change contemplated, the answers to these questions vary from situation to situation. In some cases the teachers may properly decide that the methods used for determining the curriculum are professional matters of no concern or interest to parents, provided the end result is approved. In other cases, the new program should be introduced only after the parents are fully informed and have had an opportunity to express their opinions concerning it. In general, the factor that will finally decide the issue will be the teachers' estimation of how much good and how much evil will be likely to result from their acting on the basis of their own private opinion or set of facts. It would be impossible and unnecessary for the teachers to acquaint parents with every small detail of organization and operation. On the other hand, it would be unwise to spend a great deal of time reorganizing some phase of the program, to discover that the efforts were wasted because the teachers failed to find out if the people would go along with the change.

The same line of reasoning may be used to determine how much or how little other schools will need to be taken into account in planning the work of the individual school. Naturally, working together co-operatively will be possible only if the superintendent is completely informed and has given his approval. Antagonism on his part will result in negation of the program. But approval will not automatically assure the sympathetic understanding of the personnel of other schools. Fortunately, there is not a great deal of need for the schools to work closely together. Schools in the same

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system tend to operate as more or less independent entities. In the absence of an attempt on the part of the superintendent to promote better relationships in the system the individual school can do little to promote co-operative procedures outside its own walls.

INTERNAL INFLUENCES ON CHANGE

1. *Habit.* Not all the problems of developing a new set of principles have to do with difficulties brought about by outside agencies and contacts. The members of the faculty may present problems of their own. Since it is assumed that the introduction of democratic administration will take place in a situation that has been previously operating in a conventional manner, the teachers will bring to the new situation a set of psychological attitudes and practices that will do little to further the cause. If the teachers are all highly seasoned they will have learned to react to the principal in a habitual manner, expecting to be told what to do and how to do it. Regardless of the principal's competence to direct the new program, the teachers will have been hardened to the necessity of conforming to regulations established without their consent. Over the years these autocratic prescriptions have accumulated a back-log of mind-sets that will make change an extremely difficult achievement.

2. *Lack of enthusiasm.* Not all teachers will readily relinquish this rather comfortable way of conducting their school business. It is much easier and simpler to be told what to do, to feel no responsibility for determining the program. No great effort need be expended in wracking one's brain for ideas that will make the program more desirable; all that is left willingly to the principal. It would be false to assume that teachers crave opportunities to direct their own educational activities. The anesthesia of autocracy deadens the sense of independence. Rejuvenation of the desire for freedom may not always be possible. For these teachers the new program will hold little, if any, attractiveness.

3. *Reverence for the principalship.* Some teachers have a tremen-

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dous amount of respect for the position held by the principal. One may question from what source this respect may have arisen. In some cases, it may be the result of formerly having a principal who had made a deep impression through his excellence. It may have sprung from childhood precepts, drilled into the teacher's consciousness as a pupil. It may even arise from an acceptance of the principle that some are born to rule and others to follow. In any case, the principal will discover that he personally exemplifies an obstacle to the process through his inherited position of dominance.

4. *The separation of theory and practice.* One of the outstanding difficulties on the road to success will lie in the tendency of human beings to show wide gaps between what they say and what they do. Perhaps some of this may be traced to one's own educational experiences. Oververbalization in teaching is not unknown. All of us are guilty of inconsistencies between our theory and practice. We practice the principles of Christianity on Sunday and cut our competitor's throat on Monday. We preach the principle of free speech and lock up the first person who speaks disparagingly about our government. We dedicate our emotions and our loyalties to the causes of democracy and exploit the Negro whenever it is financially profitable.

And thus it is with teachers who attempt to practice the principles of democracy in school. The verbalizations that accompany the introduction of the processes will very likely be immediately acceptable to all. It *sounds* very nice when in the verbal stage. But the task of making words and acts consistently conform will not be easy. The principal can easily be the main offender in this respect; in some so-called democratically run schools the actual practices have changed but little, although the words used to describe the program have a different sound to them. Inviting teachers to determine policy is important only if the principal actually frees them so that they are able to do so. If the teachers spend considerable time planning together, the principal cannot afford, either overtly or surreptitiously, to undermine these plans by his autocratic domination of their deci-

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sions. All one may hope to get from this inconsistent approach is insincerity and verbalization, with no fundamental change in the outcomes.

5. *Fear of change.* All of us recognize the tendency of people to resist anything new, particularly if it is radically different from the old. We get comfort from the familiar; an unchartered future is likely to present a forbidding aspect. When a novel idea or action has been amply demonstrated to be more profitable we are willing to try it out, but we prefer the comfortable experience of being from "Missouri," to be shown first. Teachers have had relatively little experience in planning educational programs, either with the principal or without him. The prospects of embarking on a new kind of voyage without any concrete assurance of success or satisfaction are not particularly inviting. One would theoretically suppose that members of American communities, who have been brought up on the idea that people desire freedom of action, would literally leap at the chance of operating in this fashion. Actually, the reverse is likely to be true. Independence of action is too unfamiliar, too foreign to the experiences of most people. They like to talk about it, but when the chips are down, they prefer to be told what to do—so that they may have the privilege of complaining about the inefficiency of someone else.

6. *Unwillingness to accept responsibility.* With freedom comes responsibility. If the program is ineffectual or unacceptable to the community, the blame must be accepted by the teachers themselves. It will not be possible for them to find a scapegoat in the principal. The price of freedom will sometimes come too high for certain teachers, and all of them would prefer to escape the necessity of accepting the consequences of their own acts. This fact may put teacher planning in a dangerous position. The teachers themselves may sabotage their own program in an attempt to evade the responsibilities. Faculties have sometimes acted as though this new-fangled idea of administration was entirely the principal's; they have only

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played along with his idiosyncrasy because they did not like to hurt his feelings. One of the most difficult problems will be that of getting teachers sincerely to accept, not only the privileges of group action, but the outcomes as well.

7. *The reverence for efficiency.* Of all the obstacles to be encountered will be the American idolatry of efficiency. Democracy itself has often been on the witness stand in defense of the accusation of inefficiency. People who desire to get things done expeditiously complain of the relatively greater amount of time and energy needed to get things done in a democracy. Teachers will reflect this objection. It will seem much more sensible to have professionally competent educators plan the curriculum for the teachers, so that they may execute it with a minimum of confusion and wasted effort. Group discussion takes time, time that teachers would prefer to spend otherwise. Reverence for efficiency will be violated in the seeming delay and conflict engendered by the slower and more deliberate processes of group planning.

It is clear that this last difficulty derives from the presence of differing values. One needs to ask the question: "what *is* important?" Is it more important to have a well-planned curriculum, worked out by experts, which teachers will only partially understand and therefore will put in practice indifferently? Or is it more efficient to spend the necessary time at the beginning to achieve understanding, so that execution will be more effective? Obviously, there is no hope of finding an answer to these questions until the teachers themselves have had an opportunity to find answers in revised practice and experimentation with newer methods. They have had sufficient experience with operating a curriculum devised by others. Let them build their own and test the true efficacy of both methods in the laboratory of experience.

There is no argument when one has decided what is important. The teachers will need to ask themselves whether they are concerned more with nice-looking curricula or with effective changes in the

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lives of children. If the latter, can this be achieved best by following the plans of others or by formulating their own? After all, the most efficient plan is the one that gets the best results, regardless of the length of time this may take.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGE

1. *Take it easy.* Perhaps the most common error made in transferring from one method to another is the assumption that the change must be made quickly and radically. In the space of one school year the amount of growth in insight and understanding is not likely to be great. Teacher growth can occur only as fast as new experiences are integrated into their thinking and values. More rapid progress than this will inevitably result in confusion, misunderstanding, and dissatisfaction. Since teachers are mature adults, with many years of experiences that have equipped them poorly for co-operative endeavor, much unlearning must occur before the newer ideas, values, and goals may be readily assumed. It is much better to begin with small, relatively minor matters than to overchallenge the teachers with responsibilities beyond their powers to assume.

2. *Start with simple problems.* In the very beginning it might prove more advantageous to encourage teachers to assist in the determination of administrative problems that have little to do with educational practice. If the school has a sum of money to be used for the purchase of a movie projector, the decision as to what machine to get would make a good beginning. Shall they get a Bell & Howell, a Devry, an Ampro, or an Eastman? How can the teachers be sure that their money will be most economically invested? What are the comparative merits of the different machines. What will be the main purposes for which the projector is used? As the teachers, whose interest and concern will undoubtedly be high, work toward a solution to these questions, they will be gaining valuable experience in the technique of co-operative group decision. Perfection at

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this stage would be unusual. If teachers can see the advantage and benefits of working together, not only will they obtain a more acceptable projector, but they will have gained satisfaction in the use of a process. Its extension to other areas will have been made easier.

3. *Pay attention to human relations.* In Chapter Twelve we discussed a situation in which teachers worked with the principal in interpreting test results. We saw that the teachers could often be helpful in working out some of the difficulties in the program. The problem was concrete, it was directly related to the experiences teachers had with children, the teachers could contribute satisfactorily to a proper solution, and the program was materially improved by their efforts. However, in situations as apparently simple as this, minor frictions and differences of opinion are likely to occur. One teacher may stubbornly hold to a point of view that is unacceptable to the rest, resulting in strained personal relations. If the final decision must be made by ignoring this teacher's point of view, she will feel antagonistic, not only to the conclusions reached, but to the people who reached them.

Personal relations that develop in co-operative planning are fundamentally important. Since people are psychologically influenced in one direction or another in terms of their satisfactions and emotional attitudes, improper social relations may completely destroy other values of co-operative interaction that might accrue. Whether we like it or not, we live in a social world, influenced by the attitudes of others. No one will feel favorably disposed to a procedure which gives rise to unpleasant social relations. If the co-operative process does not improve social relations its chances of survival are poor indeed. Tolerant and respectful consideration of all points of view, with a firm determination to stay with the problems until amicable agreement is reached, is vital to success.

4. *Make the group process pleasant.* The emotional problems involved in group action are complex and perplexing. All learning

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and growth are attended by feeling and emotion. In the past we have all too often ignored this fact, but it can be ignored only to the ultimate defeat and negation of the whole co-operative process. What the teachers *feel* about the new experience they are having will determine its success or failure. If the experiences of co-operation with the principal are pleasant and satisfying, one can be assured that the process will be expanded into other areas. If the early trials are unpleasant, frought with bickering and quarreling, teachers cannot be blamed for taking an attitude of indifference toward the extension of the process into areas where the chances of further unpleasant experiences are likely to be increased.

5. *Teachers can be trusted.* In the annals of school administration it is curious to note to what extent principals and superintendents have acted as though teachers could not be trusted with the task of educating children. Elaborate courses of study, minutely specific prescriptions of content, rigid control of methods in the classroom, detailed management of teachers' behavior while in school, all testify to the conclusion that teachers need to be told what to do. It is time for someone to challenge this basic assumption and demand that proof be presented to justify present practice. Curiously, this suspicion of the adequacy of teachers does not extend to administrative officers. The superintendent will rarely check on the competence of the principal to administer his school efficiently. The principal, in turn, will often delegate to an assistant principal the task of supervising the teachers, without questioning his competence. The net result of this conspiracy against teachers is to magnify the essential rightness of this position and to deepen distrust of teachers. In turn, the teacher, who has worked long in such an atmosphere, resigns herself to the inevitable and accepts the notion that she needs watching.

Even if the observable facts justified the actions of administrators, no self-respecting psychologist would approve of the present methods as effective means of improving the situation. If teachers have

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no encouragement to measure up to more desirable standards of behavior, no one can blame them for making no effort. It would be much more sensible to reverse the psychological process and insist that teachers are essentially trustworthy people, if for no other reason than that such an assumption would progressively influence them toward this end. The number of cases in which the trust was misplaced would be more than outweighed by the many cases in which confidence would be the inspiration to greater effort to measure up.

Those who have experimented with the techniques of co-operative thinking have been impressed with the ability of teachers to think clearly and reasonably about the problems of children's educational development. Once freed from the restricting environment of distrust and strict obedience to administrative fiat, it is remarkable how intelligent they can be. Any principal interested in the effective development of educational policy must demonstrate his faith in teachers as one of his first acts. This profession of faith will need to be more than a verbal statement. His every act in dealing with teachers must be evidence of his sincerity.

6. *Avoid philosophic arguments at first.* Most individuals find it difficult to think clearly in the realm of abstract philosophy. Teachers who are excellent practitioners in the classroom may experience considerable bafflement in a situation calling for abstract discussion of principles, ideals, and values. Much preliminary preparation is necessary before satisfaction can be derived from this kind of experience. One of the best ways to destroy enthusiasm for group action is to plunge immediately into the problem of getting agreement in philosophy. If we learn through our experiences, the initial ones must be concrete and specific, progressing through continuous intellectual abstraction to an acceptance of values and principles. When the members of a staff begin their program of co-operative thinking their philosophic bases are both widely different and unconsciously held. Grave conflicts will be revealed when these are dragged out

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into the light for critical analysis and thrown into combat with one another. The result will be a radical division of opinion which will provide an extremely poor basis for agreement. The only hope for increasing success will come as the common experiences of the teachers provide a basis for commonly held values and ideals. These new group values may be inconsistent with those individually held previously, but the new viewpoints are solidly based on real experiences, while the former are likely to be the result of uncritical verbal acceptance of childhood precepts. In the long run the outcomes of concrete experience will be more influential.

At first this will be difficult to see. It seems to be the fate of most of us to be governed largely by a set of ideals that have no real counterpart or substantiation in our experience. Fortunately for the human race, when these arbitrarily held values are challenged by our experiences, we are willing to revise our point of view in favor of what is demonstrably true. And so it is likely to be with teachers as they work together for the improvement of education. The new, co-operative experiences will gradually dilute and eventually dissolve the conflicting verbalizations in philosophy, provided the principal does not force the teachers to face these conflicts too early.

7. *Practice what you preach.* The conduct of the principal as he leads the teachers through the labyrinths of group deliberation will determine in no small degree the success of the venture. Consistent adherence to the principles he would have govern the actions of others is an essential ingredient of success. His personal ability to see all sides of the questions, his willingness to listen respectfully to ideas that conflict with his, his ready admittance of possibility of being wrong, will all determine the extent to which the teachers will tend to behave accordingly. As an active member of the group his conduct will set the example for others. The famous statement of Cubberly, "As the principal, so goes the school," is as applicable to a situation in which teachers are the authority as it is in one where the principal is sole arbiter.

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8. Encourage teachers to be critical. Most administrators are disturbed by the tendency of their teachers to complain, usually privately, about the administration of the school. Any attempt to please all teachers is doomed to early failure. Recognition of this fact offers poor consolation to the conscientious principal. He tries his best to run the school well, and is rewarded with ungrateful and uncomplimentary comments about his ability.

The principal who operates on the democratic principle will find no appreciable reduction in this tendency; in fact he may be dismayed to discover that it has increased. Elimination or reduction of autocratic domination may be a signal for an increase in "griping." Teachers who had acquiescently followed the prescriptions of the principal may now be noted to express themselves rather forcibly concerning his adequacy. Heretofore, the school program at least had the virtue of looking efficient. Now, teachers neither know where they are going nor do they have any hopes of finding out. Such comments are a natural outgrowth of changing from one form of administration to the other.

Outward manifestations of dissatisfaction are usually distressing. Principals who have timidly embarked on the experiment of group action will often be discouraged to the point where they will condemn the whole procedure. But a moment's thought will reveal that only the *outward appearances* have changed. Teachers have always criticized their principals, but formerly it was done in private, with due care not to get caught at it. Now, because of the changed character of the relations between teacher and principal, the teacher feels free to express these criticisms openly.

Instead of this factor being a discredit to the new policy, it is actually a boon, provided the principal can "take" it. He is now presented with a golden opportunity to repattern his behavior in line with group approval. He has a perfect sounding board for his actions. When he commits an act that meets with disfavor, he can be assured that he will hear about it. Instead of making it un-

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pleasant for the teacher, he should openly encourage the practice for his own benefit.

9. *Come off your high horse.* Acceptance of the above suggestion implies that the principal will no longer adhere to the former practice of surrounding his august presence with an aura of sanctity and righteousness. It implies that he must consider himself "one of the gang," subject to the same respect, consideration, and indignities as any other member. There is nothing innately sacred about the office of the principal in a co-operatively run school. His errors, inadequacies, and downright failures are an open book. It is only when the principal insists upon being treated as "boss" that it is necessary to protect his reputation by artificial means. Good-natured "kidding" and frank recognition of his weaknesses are excellent indications of his success in achieving equal status with the teachers. Without unreserved acceptance as a true member of the group, the principal has little chance of contributing to the success of the group's plans and program.

The conclusion is inescapable. The success of the entire venture in co-operative control depends almost entirely on the competence of the principal. As the former generalissimo of the school his vigorous direction will be expected. He must be conscious of the problems of transition from one form of control to the other. The teachers will vary considerably in their ability to adjust their thinking and acting to new ways. Without his constant and intelligent guidance there is not much hope that the program will ever succeed.

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Problems of the Elementary School Principal

In developing the material for this book the author analyzed nearly 500 different responsibilities of the principal as a basis for determining the magnitude and diversity of his job. This list was used as a foundation for a case study of the elementary principalship from which the principles in this volume emerged.

I. *The Problems of Opening School*

1. Assigning teachers to their classes.
2. Assigning pupils to their classes.
3. Seeing that children know where to go (they forget over the summer).
4. Distributing textbooks and supplies.
5. Welcoming new pupils to the school and assigning them to their classrooms.
6. Conferring with parents who are dissatisfied with their child's class assignment.
7. Making out a set of the more important rules and regulations governing the school.
8. Establishing hours for opening, closing, and noon hour.
9. Assigning teachers to special responsibilities, such as hall duty, playground, etc.
10. Checking on classroom furniture to see that size and kind are right for the grade.
11. Checking on adequate supply of furniture for each room.
12. Welcoming new teachers to the school, getting them started, explaining the system to them.
13. Checking on last year's failures to see that they are assigned to their proper grade level.

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14. Checking on the building to see that the summer repairs and alterations have been made.
15. Establishing a system for fire drills.
16. Establishing dismissal system.
17. Supervising the school secretary to see that she is carrying out her responsibilities adequately.
18. Conferring with the superintendent upon emergencies arising as a result of unpredictable factors (more pupils than you had estimated).
19. Checking on certification of new teachers.
20. Making out schedules for the use of special rooms (music, art, etc.).
21. Making out the schedule for the use of the gym.
22. Making arrangements for the use of special equipment (movie projector, victrolas, radio, etc.).

II. *The Problems of Administrative Responsibilities and Office Routine*

23. Establishing the relation between the school secretary and the principal.
24. Setting up a pupil record system, and keeping the records.
25. Duplicating materials for the principal (bulletins, schedules, etc.).
26. Duplicating materials for the teachers.
27. Teaching someone (secretary or older pupil) to run the ditto and mimeograph machines.
28. Planning the day's work in the office (the best time for dictating, seeing parents, handling discipline problems, etc.).
29. Answering the telephone (the best way to answer; who should take care of it).
30. Setting up a system of supply distribution.
31. Arranging for someone to take care of distributing supplies.
32. Arranging for someone to take care of the distribution of textbooks.
33. Collecting money for drives, contributions, sales.

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34. Keeping the financial accounts for the school, paying for materials purchased by the school.
35. Keeping the attendance records for the school.
36. Arranging conferences with parents.
37. Taking care of tardy children (late permits).
38. Making reports to the superintendent.
39. Setting up schedules for the use of the auditorium and gym.
40. Setting up schedules for the use of school equipment: victrola, radio, movie projector, paper cutter, stapler, duplicating equipment.
41. Setting up schedules for the use of special rooms: music, art, handwork.
42. Arranging schedules for special teachers: music, art, physical education, subject-matter teachers.
43. Arranging for the special notices to teachers (Who lost a black mitten?, Does anyone have the stapler?, The scouts will meet in Room #16 tonight at 3:30).
44. Arranging for the system whereby teachers will report to the office daily on their attendance and absence.
45. Getting the attendance officer to work on cases of truancy.
46. Handling discipline cases sent to the office.
47. Securing substitute teachers, helping them set up a temporary schedule.
48. Computing grade and school medians for system-wide testing programs.
49. Supplying the office with adequate materials.
50. Ordering supplementary materials for teachers.
51. Checking on teacher punctuality.
52. Keeping the school's time and bell system accurate.
53. Getting reports from teachers when they are due.
54. Developing the office into a "service center."
55. Distributing incoming mail, seeing that outgoing mail is picked up.
56. Distributing the teachers' monthly checks.
57. Arrange for having photos of children taken.

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58. Meeting salesmen and bookmen.
59. Arranging for outside entertainers to come to the school.

III. *The Problems of the Principal as Building Executive*

60. The relation of the principal to the superintendent's system policy.
61. Carrying out the superintendent's orders as his subordinate.
62. The function of the principal in principals' meetings.
63. How can the principal best represent his faculty?
64. What relation does the principal have to system-wide curriculum groups?
65. What is the relation of the principal to the special supervisors who come to his school? Is their authority greater than his?
66. What is the relation of the principal to other principals in the system? Is the elementary principal a lower form of animal than the secondary? When conflicts between schools arise, what does the individual principal do about it?
67. When conflicts arise between special teachers and regular teachers, what stand should the principal take?
68. Establishing the proper "rapport" between special teachers and the regular teachers.
69. Fighting for fair treatment of the school by the superintendent. Getting a fair, proportionate amount of supplies, repairs, attention.
70. When the superintendent visits the school, what should the principal show him? What should he discuss with the supt.?
71. What responsibility has the principal for representation of his group in membership in educational organizations, county, state, national?
72. Knowing school law and keeping the school in line with it (proper space for fire exits, boiler maintenance, legal responsibility of teachers and custodian).
73. Acting as campaign manager for: Red Cross, Community Fund, Christmas and Easter Seals, collection

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of wastepaper, selling war stamps, ticket sales for school functions, selling school publication, newspaper publicity, etc., ad nauseum.

74. How should these campaigns be organized, directed?
75. Getting pupils enthusiastic for participation in campaigns.
76. Getting the public to co-operate in campaigns.
77. Handling newspaper publicity for the various drives.
78. Collecting money from the children or public.
79. Integrating the work of the many agencies which work with the school: medical and dental services, library, cafeteria, attendance officer, business manager, Juvenile Court, charities, P.T.A., city government, clubs and organizations, etc.
80. Planning for and using federal government facilities, such as: nursery education, extended school services.
81. Arranging for and encouraging the use of the school by outside educational organizations: Girl and Boy Scouts, Cubs, Camp Fire Girls, Boys Clubs, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A.
82. Administering the use of the building by outside groups: basketball teams, adult gym classes, adult classroom activities, beginning English for foreigners, etc.
83. Getting outside engagements for special school groups: performances for the school choir and orchestra, supplying music and dramatic talent to interested groups.
84. Co-ordinating the work of special groups in the faculty.

IV. *The Problems of Plant Management*

85. Supervising the work of the custodian.
86. Seeing that the custodian does his work only, and not some of that delegated to teachers: trying to discipline children; acting as a "bogyman" for teachers to scare children with.
87. Checking on room temperatures. "Some like it hot, some like it cold."

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88. Checking on floor and window cleanliness. Seeing that the custodian does not "cut the corners."
89. Seeing that blackboards are kept in proper condition, free from chalk dust and properly cleaned.
90. Assisting in getting proper equipment for the custodian: brooms, sweeping compound, tools.
91. Arranging for custodian to do simple repair work in the classroom.
92. Getting custodian to help teachers with educational construction problems.
93. Helping to preserve the looks of the school grounds: keeping children off the front lawn, out of the shrubbery.
94. Keeping grounds and playground clean and neat.
95. Planning replanting of shrubbery, rehabilitation of lawns, etc.
96. Settling troubles between custodian and teachers.
97. Clarifying to teachers and custodian the proper relationship between them.
98. Getting teachers to help the custodian with his cleaning problems, by having children leave the room as neat as they can.
99. Plan and supervise the summer custodial program: painting, repairing, overhauling equipment, additions, changes.
100. Keeping the custodian in his boiler room (not supposed to leave for more than fifteen minutes) and still get work done in the school.
101. Keeping children's desks and seats in proper repair during the year.
102. Checking constantly on the physical condition of the building, seeing that the heating equipment is working adequately, roof and window frames are airtight, fire doors are working properly.
103. The relation between the business manager and the custodian and principal. Who is in final authority? To whom does the custodian go for orders?
104. When supplies must be purchased, who shall determine their need, and the ability to purchase?

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V. *The Problems of Curriculum Construction and the Course of Study*

105. Developing a "pattern of development" for the school—a guide for general direction of the curricular activities.
106. What is the difference between curriculum and course of study?
107. Determining what should be taught and where it should be taught.
108. How much should be expected of the individual child in each grade?
109. For whom should the curriculum be devised? The average child?
110. Getting teachers to make adequate plans for their program.
111. Should lesson plans be made for the single day? Week? Month? Year?
112. How close should the teacher stick to the course of study?
113. What are legitimate reasons for variation from the course?
114. Should the principal have copies of teacher plans and check on them?
115. What is the value of field trips?
116. How should field trips be planned? What preliminary planning should the principal expect of teachers?
117. What part should the principal play in planning and conducting field trips?
118. What is the value of constructive activities in the classroom?
119. What shall the principal do to encourage them?
120. The problem of getting teachers to vary from the time-honored program.
121. The problem of having teacher work written down, without the written work becoming "authority."
122. Getting teachers to adapt the course of study to the needs of children.
123. Getting teachers to "balance" their program. Teachers tend to overemphasize their own likes in school.

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124. Making it possible for teachers to know what experts in education recommend.
125. The greater problem of getting teachers to follow these recommendations.
126. Relating the results of educational research to the classroom program.
127. The difficulties an individual school gets into when it varies from the traditional patterns laid down for all schools.
128. The lack of time to do all worthwhile things in school.
129. Getting teachers to use children's experiences in the classroom.
130. Enriching the program. For whom should it be enriched?
131. What relation should textbooks have to the classroom program? Should the principal encourage them or not? What happens to the program when he encourages that the textbooks be disregarded?
132. When not using a textbook, where shall teachers get their materials?
133. How can the principal help them in finding materials?
134. Helping the teachers build original courses of study.
135. Helping teachers execute these original courses in the classroom.
136. Who should plan a course of study: pupils, teacher, principal, superintendent, or special curricular committees?
137. What is the principal's relation to the construction of courses?

VI. *The Problems of Pupil Evaluation*

138. When should a pupil pass?
139. What constitutes success in school? How can it be measured?
140. What tests are available for measurement of child development?
141. When does the principal know what test to administer?
142. The problem of determining the relative importance

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of tests and test results. How does the principal know when to be concerned, and when not, with the results of tests?

143. The interpretation of test results. How shall the principal make the results valuable without making teachers teach for tests?
144. The problem of getting teachers concerned about the all-round development of children, rather than acquisition of factual knowledge.
145. The need for getting teachers to be concerned with personality.
146. Shall teachers promote children because of age and maturity, or by school subject success?
147. What can the principal do with obvious emotional problems arising from retardation?
148. The problem of the secondary school making arbitrary demands upon the elementary school with respect to the preparation of pupils sent to them.
149. Shall the elementary school teach for preparation for high school? What can the principal do about it?
150. When should children be failed, and for what reasons? What is the responsibility of the principal in child failure?
151. The conflict between arbitrary courses of study requirements and natural child maturation.
152. How can the principal adjust the program to meet the needs of children?
153. The problem of the individual school getting out of line with other schools in the values it places on child development.
154. The problems involved in the principal and teacher conferring to determine the justice of failure.
155. Getting the program to meet the individual needs of children. Shall children be organized according to ability?
156. The problem of the spread of ability in the normal class.
157. The eternal ogre of reading disabilities and difficulties.

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158. Getting teachers to see children as individuals with their own special problems.
159. The unfairness of "yardstick" measurement.
160. The interpretation of tests in terms of statistical reliability and validity.
161. Selecting tests that measure what we want to find out.
162. The problem of organizing a school for children.
163. Getting teachers to see the unfairness of making "pat" judgments.
164. The importance of evidence in judging child behavior.
165. Using modern instruments for evaluation.
166. Organizing the whole testing program in the interests of children.
167. The relation of the building testing program to one organized by the superintendent.
168. If the two programs vary in intention, how does the principal keep teachers from placing greatest concern on the one devised by the superintendent?
169. Getting teachers to construct their own evaluation instruments.
170. Teacher attitudes toward testing—the amount of work makes them underrate the importance of them.
171. The problems of administration and correction of test results.

VII. *The Problems of Pupil Discipline*

172. Who should handle discipline, teacher or principal, or both?
173. The problem of the principal handling discipline without undercutting teacher authority.
174. When should the principal step into disciplinary problems?
175. Following up cases sent to the office by the teacher. What kinds of punishment should the principal use? How should it differ from that used by the teacher?
176. Getting teachers to listen to the children's side of the story.
177. Fighting on school grounds.

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178. Destroying school property.
179. Breaking into school to steal or destroy.
180. Stealing in the classroom.
181. Tardiness and truancy.
182. Disrespect for the teacher.
183. Failing to do lessons.
184. Running in the halls, noise, disturbance, disorder.
185. Marking up walls, toilet.
186. Disorder when teacher is called from the room.
187. The misbehavior of children when the teacher is late.
188. Rainy days and their problems.
189. Getting the teacher to be concerned about real disciplinary problems and not those of mere animal exuberance.
190. Getting children to assume responsibility for their own conduct.
191. The school council and its purposes. Getting teachers to be interested.
192. Student government in elementary schools—to be or not to be.
193. Organizing the classroom for disciplinary control.
194. Setting up the rules and regulations which will adequately control conduct.
195. Should the principal be the chief disciplinary officer?
196. Developing a "tradition" in the school which will automatically control conduct.

VIII. *The Problems of Community Relations*

197. Interpreting the school and program to the community.
198. Meeting parents in school. How much time to give them. What attitude should be displayed?
199. The critical attitude of some parents. How to meet it.
200. What does the community want of its school?
201. Reporting child progress.
202. What kind of report to have.
203. The teachers' lack of tact in meeting parents, especially the critical.
204. The teachers' fear of parent attitudes.

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205. What can the principal do to control and guide parent attitudes?
206. The problem of the P.T.A.
207. The P.T.A. program, meetings, time and place.
208. Teacher indifference to the P.T.A.
209. The P.T.A. antagonism to teachers.
210. The relation of the principal to the P.T.A.
211. The importance of the P.T.A. to the school.
212. The kinds of work the P.T.A. does and could do. How the principal can guide it.
213. The selection of ways in which the principal can "sell" his school: school publication, assemblies, special programs, open house, open forums, debates, discussions.
214. The personality of the principal as a means of selling the school.
215. The organization and direction of a community council.
216. Protecting teachers from attack.
217. Handling the parent with a "gripe."
218. Getting parents to take an interest in their child's education.
219. Educating parents to newer methods of education.
220. Getting parents to assume their share of the responsibility of educating the child—the delinquent parent.
221. How far should the school go in "nose-wiping"?
222. Getting parents to see where the school's responsibility begins and the parent's ends.
223. The proper use of the attendance officer and the courts to enforce laws of attendance.
224. When should the principal step in and interfere with home conditions in the interests of the child?
225. The principal as a representative of school law.
226. The problems of legal responsibility of the school: taking children on trips, accidents at school, to and from school responsibility, "in loco parentis" of teachers.
227. The use of corporal punishment of children and its relation to the parent's attitude.
228. The parent who objects strongly and verbally to punishment of her child.

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229. The relation of the school to the churches. The factor of religious differences.
230. What to do with children whose parents are members of: Christian Science, Jehovah's Witnesses?
231. The problem of pressure groups and their attempted influence on the school: Legion, business, clubs, women's groups, influential citizens, Board of Education members.
232. The relation of the individual members of the Board of Education to the single school.
233. The school and its relation to the political party in power.
234. The problem of keeping teachers from bringing political controversies into the school (personal biases with reference to candidates).
235. The public appearances of the principal.
236. Developing the principal's individual professional standing as a means of increasing the respect of the community.

IX. *The Problems of Special Activities of the Principal*

A. *Assemblies*

237. How often should assemblies be held? How long?
238. Who should conduct them?
239. The organization of the program. The importance of a formal framework.
240. Getting pupil participation in the program. Also in the planning.
241. Keeping the assemblies from becoming merely "shows."
242. The use of outside talent. Money to subsidize them.
243. What are the kinds and varieties of programs possible?
244. Who should be responsible for the programs?
245. Getting teachers to appreciate the educational value of assemblies.
246. The yearly schedule of programs, planning it.

B. *School Publication*

247. Who should manage the school paper?
248. How can it be made financially profitable?

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249. The problem of getting supplies—ordering in advance.
250. Arranging for someone to do the typing and mimeographing.
251. The purposes of a school paper. Getting teachers to see its value.
252. The kinds and varieties of publications.
253. Getting pupils and teachers to participate in the content.
254. The business arrangements involved: getting subscriptions, advertisements, making sales, collecting the money.
255. Using the school publication as a voice of the school.
256. Planning for the editorial policy.
257. Developing the proper attitudes of pupils, teachers, public toward it.

C. *The Visual-Education Program*

258. Providing the proper mechanical equipment for the program.
259. Securing suitable subjects for showing.
260. The operation of the projectors. Who runs them? How to schedule for most efficient use.
261. Organizing and operating the film, slide, and picture library.
262. Setting up schedules for showing.
263. Making programs functional in the classroom.
264. Organizing the preview, and preparation of teachers.
265. Getting teachers to see the value of the program.

D. *Housekeeping*

266. Keeping halls and rooms neat and clean.
267. The problem of displaying children's material on bulletin boards and show cases in the halls.
268. Bringing mud and dirt in from the playground.
269. Leaving rooms at night in a clean condition.
270. Keeping the rooms during the school day in an attractive condition.
271. Displaying children's work in the classroom.
272. Furnishing the room with attractive accessories: plants, curtains, bookshelves, color.

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273. Getting children and teachers to take pride in an attractive school.

E. *Playground and Physical-Education Program*

274. Scheduling the use of the gym for most efficient use.
275. Getting teachers to exercise proper supervision of the recess period.
276. The danger of most playground equipment.
277. Noon-hour play, and what the principal can do to make it constructive.
278. Developing a logical, progressive plan for physical education.
279. Getting teachers to see the physical base for all learning.
280. Developing analogies between forms and patterns in rhythms, music, and art.
281. The organization of school teams and leagues.

F. *Special Subjects*

282. Making music and art functional parts of the classroom program.
283. What to do with teachers who are not good in the special subjects.
284. Keeping supervisors of these subjects from overstressing them in the classroom program.

G. *Regular Teaching by the Principal*

285. How a principal can do the work both of a teacher and a principal.
286. When should he carry on administrative responsibilities?
287. Determining what can and what can't be done by one person.
288. How to reduce the teaching load so that more time is available for administration.
289. What to do about interruptions in teaching for administrative detail.
290. (A whole section might be given over to the consideration of all the problems in terms of the teaching principal, showing how the conclusions reached would vary for him.)

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X. *The Problems of Special Services in the School*

A. *The School Cafeteria*

291. The relation of the cafeteria to the building program and the principal.
292. The control of conduct in the cafeteria.
293. Supervision of children's choices for lunch.
294. The responsibility of the teacher for the cafeteria and the children who use it.
295. Making out seating arrangements.
296. Planning for a staggered dismissal of children so that the facilities of the cafeteria are not overtaxed.
297. Controlling the numbers of children who stay for lunch and don't need to.
298. The parents who evade their responsibility by "dumping" their children on the school for the whole day.
299. Providing adequate cook service.
300. Financial management of the cafeteria. Who should control?
301. Food problems: purchasing, food stamps, rationing.
302. Trying to satisfy everyone with a single menu.
303. Making the cafeteria experience a source for teaching health.

B. *The School Library*

304. Making the library a functional part of the school.
305. Getting desirable books for the classroom to use.
306. Acquainting the librarian with the classroom programs.
307. Developing appreciation of librarians for educational procedures.
308. Children using the library as merely a "book center.'
309. Providing adequate instruction to teachers and childrer on the use of the library.
310. Making the librarian a special teacher instead of a "bookkeeper."
311. Securing adequate funds for operation of the library.
312. Ways of building libraries without official funds.

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313. The development of techniques of charging books when there is no special librarian.
314. The use of faculty resources in developing library service.

C. *The School Health Service*

315. Making the nurse a semimedical authority.
316. Freeing the nurse from routine jobs: first aid, inspection, records.
317. Building a health program for the school with the nurse.
318. The control of contagion.
319. The relation of teachers to the medical program. How they can function.
320. Making teachers aware of the importance of health and health instruction.
321. Getting away from the typical activities in health courses which merely encourage children to tell lies (How many brushed their teeth today?).
322. Organizing a health program which functions in the lives of children.

XI. *The Problem of School Finances*

323. Making money for the school account.
324. Developing sources for money making: sales-tax receipts, plays, contests, performances, shows, newspaper collections, sales.
325. Who controls the finances? Who keeps the books?
326. To whom does the money belong?
327. For what should the money be spent? What is a fair distribution of the proceeds?
328. Drawing the line between what the Board purchases and what the school buys.
329. Making up a bookkeeping system. Developing room accounts for teachers.
330. Getting teachers to spend the money wisely.
331. Opening a bank account, signing checks.
332. Operating the school funds according to good business principles.

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XII. *The Problems of Social Activities of the Faculty*

333. Developing social functions which will keep teachers human.
334. Making the school a less formal and stilted place.
335. Creating an atmosphere of friendliness.
336. Helping teachers to have fun in their work.
337. Organizing activities which build morale.
338. Organizing parties. The importance of parties.
339. Determining the kinds of parties to be held. The purposes for them.
340. The question of drinking and smoking by teachers.
341. Personal cliques and their problems.
342. Financial problems connected with parties. The difficulty of paying for them.
343. The development of an administrative organization for social affairs.
344. Who should be invited to the functions?
345. Where should they be held—in school or out?
346. Drawing the line between having fun and devoting oneself to professional responsibilities.
347. The social hour before teachers' meetings. Getting down to business after the social hour.

XIII. *The Personnel Problems of the Principal*

348. Being fair and considerate of teachers.
349. Being a good sport.
350. Exemplifying a consistent philosophy of education.
351. Determining the proper relationship between teachers and principal. Shall he act as "boss" or as coworker?
352. The problem of teachers' instinctive distrust of the purposes and motives of the principal.
353. The teachers' fear of administrators.
354. Being a well-rounded person. His own outside activities and interests as a guide to teachers.
355. Dealing with individual teachers according to their needs and drives.
356. Establishing rapport with his staff individually.

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357. Unifying the faculty into a well-rounded unit.
358. What to do about the principal's own shortcomings: feeling superior to teachers, impatience with teachers' disinterest or lack of understanding of educational requirements, having temper tantrums, being petty, trying to dominate the group, undue harshness in dealing with individual teachers, his own lack of foresight, hiding behind his position of authority, posing as an educational god, showing lack of feeling for teachers' sensitivities, etc.
359. Trying to get teachers not to be "old maids."
360. Handling cliques and their emotional problems.
361. Trying to broaden the personal outlook of teachers.
362. Keeping teachers from feeling jealousy for "principal's pets."
363. Showing complete impartiality in dealing with teachers.
364. Developing the cultural interests of teachers.
365. Helping teachers to overcome their feelings of inferiority and lack of confidence in themselves.
366. Handling the teacher who is always late.
367. Handling the peculiar individual problems of teachers: the poor bookkeeper, the social misfit, the mentally superior, the neurotic, the religious fanatic, the teacher who is always "right" in her own mind, the crabby old maid, the officious, the bore.
368. Dealing with personality clashes between teachers.
369. Helping teachers with their outside personal problems.
370. Helping the teacher to fit into the social life of the group.

XIV. *The Problems of Supervision*

A. *Classroom Visits*

371. How often should the principal visit the teacher? How long should he stay? What should he look for?
372. Should the principal set up his own schedule, or wait to be invited?
373. How long should he stay?
374. How much part should the teacher have in determining his visiting schedule?

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375. The problem of the teacher being nervous and concerned with his presence.
376. Should the principal take notes or depend on his memory?
377. Should the principal sit and listen or work with the children?
378. Making his visit functionally valuable to the teacher. Should he do some of the teaching?
379. Looking for special problems. The teacher may or may not be aware of them.
380. The over-all analysis of teacher ability vs. an analysis of techniques.
381. The kinds and purposes of visits: inspection of the total program, inspection of one subject, analysis of the teacher's work, assisting in the teaching, "taking over" the class.
382. Observing the physical arrangement of the room. What makes it attractive? What else is needed?
383. Criticizing the personal qualities of the teacher: voice, dress, general appearance, relation with children.
384. The problem of observing discipline.
385. Checking to see that the teacher is "on schedule" with the course of study.
386. The reaction of children to visitors: notice them or go on with work?
387. Who should determine the supervisory activities of the principal?

B. *The Conference following the Visit*

388. Scheduling the conference. At whose convenience?
389. Time of day for the conference. How long held?
390. Establishing feeling of ease, releasing tension.
391. The proper course for the conference to take. Strong points first, minor ones following.
392. Who should do the talking? How determined?
393. The problem of knowing what to tell the teacher.
394. Helping her constructively to improve her program.

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395. Who makes the evaluation of the classroom program? Teacher, principal, or both?
396. Making the conference an activity of help to teachers. One she will not dread.

C. *Demonstration Lessons*

397. Who should conduct the lesson? How determined?
398. The problem of jealousy and adverse attitudes on part of other teachers.
399. Selecting the subject for demonstration. What is the purpose?
400. The problem of making the children and situation natural.
401. The curse of stage setting.
402. When should the lessons be conducted? How long held?
403. Extracting some value out of the experience. Discussing the activity.

D. *Visits to Other Schools*

404. By what process are the schools to be visited selected?
405. Determining what the teachers are going to see.
406. The attitudes of the teachers making the visit.
407. How to free the teachers from regular teaching to make the visit.
408. Developing proper attitudes of the visitors and visited.
409. Planning the visit with the teachers.
410. Arranging with the other school the program of visitation.
411. Following up the visit with a discussion of the experience.

E. *The Visits of a Teacher with Another Teacher in the Same Building*

412. Arranging the visiting schedule.
413. Getting teachers to see the desirability of this activity.
414. Eliminating the factor of professional jealousy.
415. Freeing teachers to make the visits.
416. Determining the purposes for such visits.

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417. The principal's relation to this program. How can he help?
418. Making the conference between teacher and teacher following the visit produce good results for both.
419. How can the principal help the conference? By being present or not?

F. *Professional Literature and Principal's Bulletins*

420. How to make educational literature available to teachers?
421. How to get them interested in reading it.
422. The problem of using study-group techniques or informal freedom to use as they see fit.
423. Who makes the selection of the literature?
424. The nature and content of principal's bulletins.
425. How often issued? For what purposes?
426. The daily notice as a technique of taking care of administrative detail.
427. Getting teachers to read the bulletins.

XV. *The Problems of Educational Leadership*

428. The purpose and value of teachers' meetings.
429. The kinds of meetings held: full faculty, sectional, grade groups, committees.
430. The time meetings are held. How long they should be.
431. Breaking the monotony of going directly from teaching to an educational meeting.
432. The processes of conducting the meetings: lecture, discussion, reports.
433. The conducting of the meeting. By principal or teachers?
434. Where meetings should be held. Classroom? Outside school?
435. Attitudes of teachers toward meeting.
436. What to do about lack of interest.
437. The varying degrees of participation: the teacher who talks all the time, the one who never talks.
438. Preparation for the meetings: by principal, by teachers.

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439. Bringing new ideas to the meetings by the principal. The best method of presentation.
440. The problem of stimulating participation by teachers.
441. The social hour before meeting and its value.
442. Getting teachers to understand the function of group decision.
443. Understanding the relation of special committees to the whole group.
444. The acquiescence to the principal's constituted authority.
445. The organization of the whole group as a policy-making staff.
446. The tendency of teachers to vote one way, but feel another.
447. Saying nothing in meetings, but expressing opinions after.
448. Cliques in the faculty. How can they be handled in the meeting?
449. The difficulty of learning the techniques of group discussion.
450. The difficulty of administering or leading a group that does not understand the procedure.
451. Trying to make the group competent to reach group decisions.
452. Organizing the faculty program for the year, with major and minor concerns.
453. Trying to get the faculty to stick to this program after their interest wanes.
454. Getting teachers to grow on the job.
455. Encouraging college courses. Helping teachers select the proper ones.
456. Trying to make education a profession.
457. Developing respect for teachers as teachers.
458. Providing an example worthy of emulation.
459. Organizing workshops.
460. Getting teachers interested and active in educational organizations.
461. Providing teachers with opportunities for free choice.
462. Helping teachers to be free.

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463. Getting all children assigned to next year's grade.
464. Collecting textbooks.
465. Having teachers store own material.
466. Graduation exercises: diplomas, speaker, physical arrangements, invitations, printed programs, tickets, guests, etc.
467. Setting up the tentative organization for the next year.
468. Planning the summer work for the custodian.
469. Arranging for mail service during the summer.
470. Getting teachers' summer addresses.
471. Preparing the annual statistical report.
472. Bringing office records up-to-date: master card file, permanent records.
473. Ordering supplies, books, and materials for the next year.
474. Planning the final social affair for the staff.

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